

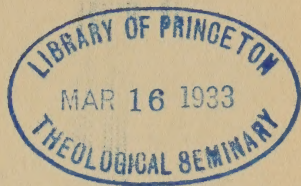
Division HV741

Section .C77

CHILDREN'S INSTITUTIONS

✓
JOHN M. COOPER

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA



A Study of Programs and Policies
in
Catholic Children's Institutions in the United States

A STUDY MADE UNDER THE
AUSPICES OF THE NATIONAL
CONFERENCE OF CATHOLIC
CHARITIES AND OF THE
COMMONWEALTH FUND OF
NEW YORK CITY



THE DOLPHIN PRESS
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

1931

Nihil obstat :

KARL J. ALTER, LL.D.

Censor Depulatus

Imprimatur :

✠ MICHAEL J. CURLEY, D. D.

Archbishop of Baltimore

BALTIMORE, April 15, 1931

COPYRIGHT, 1931

BY

THE DOLPHIN PRESS

PREFACE

DURING the past few years an increasing number of Catholic children's homes in different Dioceses of the country have been appealing to the office of the National Conference of Catholic Charities for assistance in developing the policies and standards of their institutions. In view of the fact that Catholic children's institutions are conducted by Religious Communities almost entirely, special problems present themselves not met with in lay-managed institutions. These problems have never been submitted to an empirical study of a comprehensive character. A Study, such as the present one, which represents the thought and experience of the Religious Communities engaged in Child Care, should have a stronger psychological as well as practical appeal than any found in studies previously made under other auspices.

In 1923, the Conference formulated a Program for Catholic Child-caring Homes, which embodied the results of two years of study by a special Committee of Priests and Sisters, all of whom were actively engaged in children's work. In formulating its program, the Conference endeavored to reckon with the existing situation of Child Care in the United States. It did not, therefore, set up standards which were impossible of attainment. It addressed itself to the task of formulating workable standards for congregate institutions. It emphasized what is known as the group system of Child Care, that is, the method of dividing the population into small groups, thereby making it possible to give individualized care and treatment. The present Study is a sequel to the one previously made, but with far more attention given to an analysis of the methods by which the commonly accepted standards and policies are put into effect.

It is generally recognized that the quality of work in a children's institution depends primarily upon the qualifications of the staff members, especially upon those who are in charge of the standards and policies of the institution. The religious communities of the Catholic Church, who at present conduct the work of the children's

institutions have a system of training in their novitiates which provides certain essential qualities, such as proper motivation for the work, devotion to duty, unity of purpose, freedom from distraction, and concentration on one objective. These qualities are recognized as fundamental in the successful conduct of children's institutions; but they should be supplemented by special and careful training in the particular field of child dependency. At the present time, this training is secured primarily through experience under the direction of older workers. It is desirable, however, that there should be provided in the training schools of the Religious a definite course in Child Care with a carefully planned curriculum. Such a curriculum cannot be worked out satisfactorily without the necessary text books and literature on the subject. It is to provide such assistance as the first step in the formation of training courses that this Study has been undertaken.

The duties of the Committee appointed by the National Conference of Catholic Charities, consisted primarily in developing a plan of study, in organizing the resources necessary for the undertaking, and particularly in choosing a Director, who would possess the qualities requisite for the work. His task was to direct the field investigations, to organize the material, and to write the text of the report. The Commonwealth Fund of New York City generously agreed to assist the Committee by placing at its disposal a grant of \$16,500 to help meet the cost of the Study. The Committee desires to express its sincere gratitude for this assistance without which the Study would have been impossible. Rev. John M. Cooper, of The Catholic University of America, was unanimously chosen by the Committee to assume the responsibility of directing the Study. More than two years of painstaking effort were devoted by him to the gathering of the material and to its preparation. The Committee wishes to express both in its own name, and in the name of the Conference, its deep appreciation of his work.

Although the Sisters' Conference was represented on the Committee through its Chairman, Sister Miriam Regina, nevertheless, it would have been desirable to have had larger representation from the Sisterhoods who are daily in contact with the actual problems of Child Care. This was practically impossible because of the difficulty of attending meetings, but counsel and suggestion were not lacking.

Whatever merit attaches to the Study is to be looked upon as fundamentally the contribution of the Sisters themselves.

The Committee wishes to express its appreciation, likewise, to the many interested friends, who helped with valuable criticism to make the text accurate and truly representative of the best thought on the problems of children's institutions in our country.

KARL J. ALTER, *Chairman.*

REV. JOHN J. BUTLER, Director of Catholic Charities, St. Louis, Mo.

VERY REV. JOHN J. CRONIN, C.M., Ecclesiastical Superior, Sisters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul, St. Louis, Missouri.

REV. GEORGE EISENBACHER, Superintendent, Angel Guardian Orphanage, Chicago, Illinois.

DR. EDWARD FITZPATRICK, Dean of Social Sciences, Marquette University, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

DR. JOHN J. HAGERTY, Professor of Sociology, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

REV. C. H. LEBLOND, Director of Catholic Charities, Cleveland, Ohio.

REV. EDWIN L. LEONARD, Director of Catholic Charities, Baltimore, Md.

REV. BRYAN J. MCENTEGART, Assistant Secretary, Catholic Charities, New York City.

REV. EDWARD MAHOWALD, Superintendent, St. Cloud Orphanage, St. Cloud, Minnesota.

MISS FLORENCE MASON, Children's Bureau, Cleveland, Ohio.

REV. GEORGE P. O'CONOR, Dedham, Massachusetts.

REV. DR. JOHN O'GRADY, National Conference of Catholic Charities, Washington, D. C.

SISTER MIRIAM REGINA, Superior, St. Agatha's Home, Nanuet, N. Y.

MISS MARY TINNEY, State Department of Public Welfare, New York City.

VERY REV. PETER M. H. WYNHOVEN, Director of Catholic Charities, Archdiocese of New Orleans.

CONTENTS

	PAGES
PREFACE	iii
INTRODUCTION	vii
I. RELIGIOUS CARE AND TRAINING	i
II. MORAL TRAINING	65
III. DISCIPLINE, FREEDOM, AND SELF-RELIANCE	115
IV. MENTAL HEALTH	174
V. MEDICAL CARE	209
VI. PHYSICAL CARE AND HEALTH TRAINING	268
VII. RECREATION	327
VIII. EDUCATION	409
IX. SOCIAL POLICIES	480
X. CONGREGATE, GROUP, AND COTTAGE SYSTEMS	558
XI. ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE	591
XII. PLANT AND EQUIPMENT	633
BIBLIOGRAPHY	673
INDEX	685

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of Study. The project of which the present volume is the outcome was undertaken neither as a piece of technical research nor as a survey. We have called it, for want of a better name, a study. Our purpose has been, not to discover new facts or principles, nor to appraise old procedures, but to learn the best practices in actual use, to compile these into a single manual, and thus to put at the disposal of each of our institutions the best experience of all.

Each institution has thought out certain original plans that have made for better care and training of its children. Our purpose has been to learn and to gather together these policies, methods, and devices that have been weighed in the balance of actual experience and found not wanting. The present project represents, therefore, an attempt to pool the experience of our institutions themselves. The National Conference of Catholic Charities has served merely as a clearing house for gathering in from each institution and for redistributing to all. The writer of the present volume has served chiefly as a compiler. Its real authors are the sisters, brothers, and priests who are giving their lives and thought and self-sacrificing labors to the care of God's children in our institutions. Of its very nature, the project has been a cooperative one. From beginning to end we have tried in every way to keep it honestly and totally on such a cooperative basis.

Technique of Field Study. The shift from research and survey techniques to study technique was a radical one for which we had little or no precedent to guide us. We adopted then the following plan. First, we formulated a provisional technique for the field study. After we had done so, Dr. John O'Grady and the director of the study in the early spring of 1928 personally undertook field studies of two institutions,—the one a cottage institution, and the other a congregate institution in process of transformation into a group one. In the light of this experience, we modified considerably our provisional technique.

Next, field studies of five institutions were carried out simultaneously by the five field workers: Miss Florence M. Mason, of Cleveland, who headed up the field work; Miss Frances Hoynes, of Los Angeles; Miss Alice E. Padgett, of Washington; Miss Florence L. Sullivan, of Columbus, Ohio; Miss Margaret B. Wise, of New York. After the completion of these five studies, a meeting of the workers was held in Toledo,—the chairman of the Committee, Dr. Karl J. Alter, and the director of the study being also present. In the light of this conference and of the experience of the five field workers, a final revision of and check-up on technique of the study were made.

The broad lines of procedure may be summarized in the following outline given as instructions to the field workers.

“ The most important thing to bear in mind throughout this study is that our work is *a study* and *not a survey*. Its purpose is not to pass judgment on what is being done or to discover weaknesses, but to find the strong points and still more to learn the precise processes, methods, and factors that have brought about these desirable results.

“ This is our primary objective. In view of it every effort should be made to obtain the most minute details of such processes, methods and factors. For instance, such information as the following: ‘ the ventilation is excellent ’; ‘ the kitchen is well lighted ’; ‘ the children seem very happy and speak to you in a natural and free way ’, is of value in a survey. It is of no appreciable value in the study we are making. If, however, there is some especially happy method of ventilation or lighting, or some particularly successful method of getting such a desirable attitude on the part of the children, then we should like to have full details thereon. Again, a survey would be satisfied with determining the fact that there is a good health tradition in an institution. We are more interested in finding out just precisely how such a tradition was built up, what difficulties had to be overcome, and so forth. To give just one more illustration, a survey would generally be satisfied with establishing the fact that team games organized on an intramural league basis were being participated in by 90 per cent of the gang-age boys. In our study, however, we would be more interested in finding out what precise type of league was in use, by what methods the teams and captains were chosen, what precise devices were being used to make

sure that teams were fairly equal in athletic ability, what incentives are being used to stimulate and to maintain interest, and so forth. In a word we are interested more in 'hows' and 'whys' than in 'whats'.

"Find out what by experience has not worked well, although it promised well in the beginning, and particularly find out *why* it did not work or would not work well.

"On any given good feature get as precise and minute details as possible—very much more precise and minute than are usually needed for a survey. Better get too many details than not enough, and commonly it will not be possible to get too many details.

"Be insistently and consistently on the look-out for the intangible things, such as spirit and attitudes in staff and children, and so forth, and particularly endeavor to find how such desirable intangible things have come about. Any questionnaire including the one we are using almost inevitably tends to overemphasize the tangible things. The intangible are the more important, particularly for our study.

"Make every effort to find out what problems and difficulties the Sisters have had and *how* these problems have been solved and these difficulties overcome, whether in part or entirely.

"Do not look for evidence to prove theories you already hold, but instead look for what actually works well, get the evidence that it works, and find out why and how.

"Wherever possible get concrete factual evidence, statistical or otherwise, that proves impartially and objectively the success or failure of any particular device, policy, or program.

"Make clear to the Sisters and to all others that our purpose is not to survey but to study; not to teach but to learn; not to criticize but to discover; not to suggest but to observe. If asked to make suggestions for improvement, side-step if possible or make such suggestions very charily. Better still, reply that you would prefer to wait until information has come in from the other institutions of the country.

"Perhaps the greatest single thing upon which we need detailed information is individual treatment as contrasted with mass treatment throughout all phases of the institutional program".

The foregoing instructions express the basic policies, methods and technique that determined all our field work.

Institutions Studied. The time devoted to or required for the study of any particular institution depended upon many circumstances. The individual studies ranged in length of time from a day to a month depending upon such circumstances and upon our limitations of time and finances. Every effort was made to make the study national in the sense of covering the various sections of the country, and representative in the sense of covering the various orders and the various types of institutions. The study was intentionally confined to homes for dependent children, to the exclusion of institutions for delinquents or defectives as well as of infant homes proper. All the institutions studied are conducted under Catholic auspices, although short visits were made to eleven of the non-Catholic child-caring homes. A special problem arose regarding the institutions for Indian children, as the conditions in these institutions differ in many important respects from those that obtain in our homes for dependent white children.

Owing to limitations of finance and personnel, it was not possible to make a study of all the three hundred and fifty Catholic child-caring homes in the United States. To have done so would have required about three times the amount of funds that we had at our disposal. We tried, however, to reach as many institutions, representing the various religious orders, institutional types, and geographical districts, as was possible under our limitations. A large amount of valuable information was obtained later, from a number of institutions not visited by the field workers, through correspondence, through personal conferences and visits by the director, and especially through the illuminating and invaluable suggestions sent in as marginal comments on the tentative mimeo drafts of each chapter.

The following institutions were visited personally during the field study by the field workers, the studies in all cases except six being made by the five field workers. The institutions are here listed in the order in which they appear in the Catholic Directory.

CATHOLIC CHILD-CARING INSTITUTIONS PROPER:

St. Vincent's Male Orphan Asylum, Govans, Md.

St. Anthony's Orphan Asylum, Baltimore, Md.

St. Patrick's Orphan Asylum, Baltimore, Md.

Dolan Aid Asylum, Baltimore, Md.
St. Mary's Female Orphan Asylum, Baltimore, Md.
St. Leo's Italian Orphanage, Baltimore, Md.
St. Francis Convent, Baltimore, Md.
St. Joseph's Home and School for Boys, Washington, D. C.
Angel Guardian Orphanage, Chicago, Ill.
St. Joseph's Diocesan Orphan Asylum, Cincinnati, Ohio.
St. Joseph's Orphan Home, Dayton, Ohio.
St. Benedict of the Moor Mission, Milwaukee, Wis.
St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Milwaukee, Wis.
St. Rose Female Orphan Asylum, Milwaukee, Wis.
St. Aemilian's Orphan Asylum, St. Francis, Wis.
New Orleans Female Orphan Asylum (now St. Elizabeth's
O. A.), New Orleans, La.
Hope Haven, New Orleans, La.
St. Joseph's Home for Children, Peekskill, N. Y.
St. Joseph's Receiving Home, New York City.
Christie Home for Orphan Girls, Oswego, Oregon.
Catholic Orphan Asylum for Girls, St. Paul, Minn.
St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, St. Paul, Minn.
Catholic Orphan Asylum for Boys, Minneapolis, Minn.
St. Vincent's Orphanage, San Rafael, Marin County, Calif.
Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, San Francisco, Calif.
St. Joseph's Female Orphan Asylum, Brooklyn, N. Y.
City Orphan Asylum, Charleston, S. C.
Children's Village of St. Vincent de Paul, Parma, Ohio.
St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Columbus, Ohio.
Queen of Heaven, Mother Cabrini Memorial School, Denver,
Colo.
St. Clara's Orphanage, Denver, Colo.
Mt. St. Vincent's Home for Boys, Denver, Colo.
Convent of the Good Shepherd, Denver, Colo.
Sacred Heart Orphanage, Pueblo, Colo.
St. Vincent's Female Orphan Asylum, Detroit, Mich.
St. Vincent's Villa, Brighton, Mich.
St. James Orphanage, Duluth, Minn.
St. Joseph's Home for Children, Erie, Pa.
St. Vincent's Home, Fall River, Mass.

- St. Mary's Home, New Bedford, Mass.
St. John's Orphan Home, Grand Rapids, Mich.
St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Green Bay, Wis.
St. Francis Orphan Asylum, New Haven, Conn.
Sacred Heart Italian Orphanage, New Haven, Conn.
Perry Home for Boys (Kansas City Orphan Boys' Home),
Kansas City, Mo.
St. Joseph's Orphan Home, Kansas City, Mo.
St. Michael's Orphanage, La Crosse, Wis.
St. Mary's Orphan Home, Lafayette, La.
Los Angeles Orphan Asylum, Los Angeles, Calif.
St. Vincent's Institution, Santa Barbara, Calif.
Nazareth Orphanage, San Diego, Calif.
St. Mary's Industrial School and Orphanage, Mobile, Ala.
St. Mary's Female Orphan Asylum, Mobile, Ala.
St. Edward's Orphan Asylum (The Atheneum), Birmingham,
Ala.
St. Francis' School for Boys, Watsonville, Calif.
D'Evereaux Hall, Natchez, Miss.
St. Mary's Orphanage for Girls, Natchez, Miss.
St. James' Orphanage, Omaha, Nebr.
Fr. Flanagan's Boys' Home, Omaha, Nebr.
St. Paul's Roman Catholic Orphanage, Pittsburgh, Pa.
Catholic Orphanage, Nazareth, N. C.
St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Freeport, Ill.
St. Cloud Orphanage, St. Cloud, Minn.
St. Francis Home, Savannah, Ga.
St. Mary's Home, Savannah, Ga.
St. Stanislaus Orphanage, Nanticoke, Pa.
St. Michael's Industrial School, Hoban Heights, Pa.
St. Patrick's Orphan Asylum, Scranton, Pa.
Sacred Heart Orphanage, Seattle, Wash.
Briscoe Home for Orphan Boys, Kent, Wash.
St. Ann's Orphanage, Tacoma, Wash.
St. Joseph's Orphanage, Spokane, Wash.
St. Joseph Orphan Home, Superior, Wis.
St. Anthony's Orphanage, Toledo, Ohio.

CATHOLIC INFANT HOMES AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS

St. Vincent's Infant Asylum, Milwaukee, Wis.
St. Coletta's Institute for Backward Children, Jefferson, Wis.
St. Agnes Baby Home, Park Place, Clackamas County, Oregon.
Catholic Infant Home, St. Paul, Minn.
St. Anne's Infant Asylum, Cleveland, Ohio.
Christ Child Home, Des Moines, Iowa.
Mother Cabrini Preventorium, Burbank, Calif.

CATHOLIC INDIAN SCHOOLS

St. Boniface Indian Training School, Banning, Calif.
St. John Mission, Komatke, Arizona.
St. Paul's Indian Mission, Marty, South Dakota.
St. Francis Mission, Rosebud Indian Reservation, St. Francis,
South Dakota.
St. Benedict's Industrial School, White Earth, Minn.

NON-CATHOLIC CHILD-CARING INSTITUTIONS

The Chimewa Indian School, Chimewa, Oregon.
Jewish Home for Children, Denver, Colo.
The Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Carson College, Flourtown, Pa.
Orphanage, Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y.
New Haven Orphan Asylum, New Haven, Conn.
Boys and Girls Aid Society, Portland, Oregon.
Pacific Hebrew Orphan Asylum and Home Society, San Francisco, Calif.
San Francisco Protestant Orphan Society, San Francisco, Calif.
Jewish Orphan Home of Southern California, Vista del Mar, Calif.
State Industrial School, Muncy, Pa.

The total number of institutions visited in the field study was 97. Of these, 74 were Catholic child-caring institutions proper; 7, Catholic infant homes and other institutions; 5, Catholic Indian boarding schools; 11, non-Catholic child-caring institutions. The field studies were all made between February and October, 1928.

Reports and Other Material. The individual reports ranged in length from a couple of pages to one hundred and fifty pages of double-space typewriting. The reports totaled in all about twenty-five hundred such pages. In addition, we gathered about the same amount of miscellaneous mimeo, pamphlet, record blank, and other material, exclusive of a fairly large collection of printed reports and of photographs and architectural plans. This material was sorted and classified topically as an immediate preparation for the tentative drafting of the text.

Provisional Draft in Mimeo. A tentative draft was then drawn up of each chapter, and the draft itself mimeoed. About six hundred and fifty copies of each chapter were then sent out for comments, corrections, omissions and additions, to all motherhouses in the United States and to some in Canada, to the superintendents and superiors of all Catholic child-caring institutions and of all Catholic Indian schools, to all diocesan directors of charity, to all members of the Committee, and to a number of other specialists, both Catholic and non-Catholic. We sought in this way to obtain counsel and guidance from all actively engaged in Catholic child-caring work and from others especially qualified in the field. We desired, too, by this means, to profit by the wisdom and experience of those institutions which, under our limitations of personnel and finance, we were unable, to our deep regret, to visit personally during the field study. We also felt that this plan would help still further to make the study what it was intended to be from the very beginning, that is, a cooperative project.

Revision of Tentative Draft. About five thousand comments, corrections, and suggestions came in from all over the country in response to our urgent request made when sending out the mimeo drafts. In the light of these comments, corrections, and suggestions, the text of all twelve chapters was carefully revised. The revision required almost as much labor as had the composition of the first draft. We estimate that the revised final draft differs about twenty-five per cent from the original tentative draft. One chapter, that on Religious Care and Training, was almost entirely re-written.

The Manual Itself. It was the original intention to issue a brief manual, and, in connection therewith, a series of longer brochures on selected problems. It seemed more advisable, as the work

progressed, to include all the material within the covers of a single book. We had also planned originally to devote an introductory chapter to the place of the child-caring home in the larger child welfare program. In the meantime, however, this subject has been given adequate treatment from the Catholic viewpoint by Dr. John O'Grady in his *Introduction to Social Work* (cf. esp. ch. v-vi), so we feel that the manual, which is already somewhat bulky, need not duplicate this task. His outline of the problem is easily accessible, as is also the briefer outline constituting the first chapter of the *Handbook for Institutions* published by the U. S. Children's Bureau.

The order in which the chapters appear in the text may call for a word of explanation. We have not followed a strictly logical order, but what may be called a psychological one, devoting the first eight chapters of the manual to the various phases of the institutional program proper. The order of occurrence of the chapters is not intended as an index to their relative importance. The extremely important problems of social policies, for instance, are not dealt with until we reach the ninth chapter.

A great deal of space is intentionally given in the text to the excerpts from the reports of the various institutions. The identity of the institutions is not given. Instead, we have used a numerical system, under which each institution was given a specific number, and the data from the particular institution are cited by the number enclosed in brackets and following the excerpts. The master list giving the key to the institutions represented by the respective numbers will be kept on file by the National Conference of Catholic Charities. Institutions desiring to get in touch with any of the other institutions shown in the text only by number are invited to write at any time to the National Conference.

It is felt, however, that readers will be interested in having some basic descriptive data on the respective institutions cited, particularly information as to population, sex of children, and ages. These data are given in the list that follows. After each number denoting the institution is given the child population of the institution, in most cases according to sex, the abbreviation "b" being used for boys and "g" for girls. The last number, when preceded by "a", under each institution refers to the range of ages of the children. The figures given are as of the dates on which the respective field studies

were made. The numbers (# 1, # 2, etc.) in the following list correspond to the numbers [(# 1), (# 2), etc.] which appear at the end of excerpts from reports in the text of chapters of the manual.

1, pop. 60; # 2, 60g, a 12-17 colored; # 3, 3b, 22g; # 4, 10b, 20g; # 5, pop. 60; # 6, 158g, a 5-16; # 7, 115b, a 5-13; # 8, 57b, 64g, a 7-14, an Indian school; # 9, 118b, a 7-17; # 10, pop. 116, a 5-14.

11, 447g, a 4-17; # 12, 820g during year, a 3-16, preventorium; # 13, pop. 68, a 4-17; # 14, 379b, 324g, a 2-21; # 15, pop. 1000, a 6-21, government Indian School; # 16, a 2-17, non-Catholic; # 17, 247g; # 18, 225g; # 19, 85b, 195g; # 20, 150b, a 2-12.

21, pop. 18, a 6mo-5yrs., infant home; # 22, 220g, a 6-19; # 23, 398b, 40g, non-sectarian; # 24, 63b, 62g, a 2-14; # 25, 230b, 210g, a infants-16yrs.; # 26, pop. 400, a 2-14; # 27, pop. 156, a 5-14; # 28, 100g, non-Catholic; # 29, pop. 240, a infants-16yrs.; # 30, pop. 150, a 2-14.

31, pop. 180; # 32, pop. 122, a 3-16, non-Catholic; # 33, pop. 240, no age limit, school for mentally deficient; # 34, 130b, a 6-16; # 35, 165g, a 4-16; # 36, 156b, a 7-14; # 37, pop. 40; # 38, 90b, 60g, a 2-16; # 39, 282g; # 40, pop. 306, incl. bdg. and day pupils, colored.

41, pop. 325, a 6-14; # 42, 113g; # 43, 113g, a 3mo.-6yrs., infant home; # 44, 108b; # 45, 90b, a 10-15; # 46, 116g, a 4-16; # 47, 68b, a 4-17; # 48, 75g, a 4-17; # 49, 89b, 49g, a 5-16; # 50, pop. 149, a 2-14.

51, pop. 103, a 2-15, non-sectarian; # 52, 239b, 130g, a 4-17; # 53, 110g, a 15-16; # 54, 75b, a 10-17; # 55, 151g, a 4-18; # 56, 87g, a 5-17; # 57, 40b, 40g, a 1-15; # 58, a 2-12; # 59, 70b, 81g, a 3-14; # 60, pop. 35.

61, 188, a 5-16; # 62, 150b; # 63, pop. 310, a infants-14yrs.; # 64, 140g, a 5-16; # 65, 101g, infants-7yrs., infant home; # 66, 342b, a 3-14; # 67, 470b, 374g, a 2-16; # 68, 426b, 255g, a 5-16; # 69, pop. 60, a under 18, non-sectarian; # 70, 58b, 55g, a 1-16.

71, 72b, 42g, a 3-14; # 72, 143b, a 2-16; # 73, pop. 40, infant home; # 74, 54g, a 2-14; # 75, pop. 130, a 2-14; # 76, 35b, 38g, a 2-11; # 77, pop. 180, a 6-16, non-Catholic; # 78, pop. 126, a 10-16, non-Catholic; # 79, 325g, a 5-16; # 80, 401b, a 6-16.

81, 30b, 148g, a 2-16; # 82, 32g, a 5-15, colored; # 83, 56g,

a 5-17; # 84, 261g, a 6-18; # 85, 35b, 45g, a 3-16; # 86, 72b, 68g, a 2-14; # 87, 29b, 31g, a 6-14; # 88, 96b, 84g, a 3-18; # 89, 50b, 24g, a 4-16; # 90, pop. 100, a 6-16, non-Catholic.

91, 87b, a 7-13; # 92, 190b, a 10-16; # 93, 320b; # 94, 116b, 147g, Indian school; # 95, 110b, 125g, Indian school; # 96, 122g, state industrial; # 97, 220b, 214g, Indian school; # 98, pop. 134; # 99, pop. 271, a infants-17yrs.; # 100, Indian School.

101, pop. 220, a 6-16; # 102, a infants-3yrs., infant home; # 103, pop. 357, a 2-16; # 104, 70g, bdg. school; # 105, 60b, 145g; # 106, pop. 243; # 107, pop. 172; # 108, pop. 143; # 109, pop. 83; # 110, pop. 203.

111, pop. 33; # 112, 155g; # 113, 452b, 352g; # 114, pop. 94; # 115, 38b, 37g; # 116, pop. 229, bdg. school; # 117, pop. 175; # 118, 65b, 55g; # 119, 154b, 132g; # 120, 66g.

121, 215b; # 122, pop. 122; # 123, 140g; # 124, 115g; # 125, 68b, a 4-17; # 126, 145b; # 127, 35b; # 128, 130b; # 129, pop. 153; # 130, 111g; # 131, pop. 232; # 132, 125b, 47g; # 133, pop. 357, a 2-16.

The citations and excerpts numbered from 1 to 108 are, with the exception of nos. 26, 56, 57, 58, 59, 61, 89, 103, 104, 105, 107, from reports of institutions personally visited and studied by the field workers, by Dr. John O'Grady, or by the director. The remaining excerpts numbered up to 133 are from institutions not visited personally, but from which information was gathered through correspondence or else through comments on the mimeo drafts. Excerpts numbered from 200 to 211 denote information forwarded from motherhouses. Excerpts numbered from 300 to 370 denote information gathered from Catholic Charities Bureaus and from Catholic and non-Catholic specialists in the child-caring and related fields.

The lists of references at the end of each chapter represent selected sources. As a general rule, reference was made to popular and semi-technical sources rather than to more strictly technical works. It was felt that a running bibliographical commentary would be preferable to a bare list of works. Effort was made to keep these lists of references to a minimum.

Every effort has been made throughout the text to avoid what-

ever may seem to savor of overconfidence or dogmatism. This has been done, not as a mere matter of policy, but rather as the result of a sincere and profound conviction. Over and over again throughout the study we have found successful results being attained through differing methods, and often though radically differing ones. In many questions concerning institutional programs and policies we have hesitated to recommend either one or other of alternative plans, because we have found both plans working equally well. Moreover, we have had continually to take into account that conditions differ very greatly from institution to institution. A program or policy that is found successful in one institution may be far from successful when carried out in another institution.

On the other hand, where experience appears to have been clearly and uniformly favorable to a given program or policy, we have not hesitated to make either provisional or unconditional recommendations. Throughout we have been guided, in accordance with the primary purpose of the present study, by actual experience in institutions, particularly in the Catholic institutions, included in the present study. Time and again the compiler of the report has changed and scrapped personal views previously held and has substituted therefor recommendations more in line with concrete experience of our sisters, brothers and priests actually engaged on the firing line in institutional labors and responsibilities.

We were urged more than once during the course of the study to draw up a list of standards. We realize that such a list of standards would have a value. On the other hand, we have questioned whether the values would outweigh the possible drawbacks. We decided, therefore, not to attempt such a list. The whole purpose of the present study has been, not to "standardize", but to serve as a clearing house or medium of communication between the institutions. We have not had in view, in drawing up the present text, the presentation of ultimate ideals. In other words, we have tried to avoid setting up utopias that may be realized perhaps in the year 2000 A.D. The study was instead undertaken with an immediately practical purpose, namely, the suggestion of goals that can be reached by the average institution within the next decade. We feel, moreover, that a manual like the present one will be in need of constant or periodical revision. No man living is gifted with such

sense of prophecy as to be able to say what will be the ideal or the best fifty or seventy years hence. This thought, however, suggests two important tasks for the near future.

Future Tasks. First, the problems of the boarding school are, in about seventy five per cent of their extent, almost identical with those of the child-caring home. The child-caring home can and should profit much by the experience of the boarding school, and the boarding school can and should profit much by the experience of the child-caring home. Each of these two types of institutions has much to give to and much to learn from the other. Closer relationships between them and freer interchange of views, experience, and counsel are ardently to be desired. May we express the hope, too, that, in the not far distant future, an empirical study of the best experience of boarding schools may be made, and the results put, through publication, at the disposal both of our boarding schools and of our child-caring homes.

Secondly, we shall sooner or later have to face the extremely difficult and extremely delicate task of checking up and of testing objectively a vast number of our present assumptions within the field of child care in general and of the child-caring home in particular. The field is honeycombed with conflicting views, surmises and anti-surmises, and with points of view that range, in the present state of our knowledge, all the way from slight plausibility to high probability. Only by the most thorough and far-reaching study of objective results wrought upon children by this or that institutional policy shall we be able to judge finally between many of these conflicting views, and to transmute what are now improbable, plausible, or highly probable theories into demonstrated falsities or established verities.

This task is a major one that lies ahead of us. It will be no easy one. It will require many years of patient observation and measurement. Nevertheless, if we expect to build our programs and policies upon demonstrated facts, the task must be frankly and unreservedly approached. Meanwhile, for many a day and many a year, we shall have to mold a large proportion of our programs and policies on reasonable surmises, checked only here and there by a greater or lesser amount of objective evidence.

Acknowledgments. Rendering due acknowledgments is a very pleasant duty, but a very complicated and puzzling one. A full list of all acknowledgments that should be made would have to run into many pages, as several hundreds have, through their courteously and selflessly given help, made their respective contributions.

We have, first of all, to express our deep appreciation to the Commonwealth Fund for its generous financing of the project. The writer desires to express to the members of the supervising committee his appreciation of their unfailing courtesy and of the executive and literary freedom left to him by them.

We wish to express our cordial appreciation to the hundred and more institutions to whom we are indebted for most of the data on which the present book is based. The authorities of the institutions visited during the field study were uniformly most kind, patient and hospitable and were unsparing of their time and counsel during and since the period of the field study.

We also wish to express our cordial thanks to the authorities of the many institutions who have devoted long hours and days to the tedious task of going over the mimeo drafts and of sending in their valuable and suggestive comments. We are especially indebted to the following institutions and schools, all but three of which were not visited during the field study: Mount St. Joseph, Augusta, Ga.; City Orphan Asylum, Charleston, S. C.; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, Cincinnati, Ohio; St. Joseph Orphan Asylum, Dayton, Ohio; St. Mary's Orphan Asylum, Galveston, Texas; St. Joseph's German Catholic Orphan Asylum, Louisville, Ky.; St. Mary's Orphanage, Mission San José, Calif.; Nazareth Junior College, Nazareth, Ky.; St. Elizabeth's Orphanage, New Orleans, La.; St. Francis' Colored Orphan Asylum, Normandy, Mo.; Diocesan Orphanage, Ogdensburg, N. Y.; St. Mary's Boys' Orphan Asylum, Rochester, N. Y.; St. Vincent's Female Orphan Asylum, Troy, N. Y.; St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Wheeling, W. Va.

The motherhouses have been most generous in their response to our request for counsel and information. Our heartfelt gratitude goes out to them, particularly to the following: Daughters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul, Emmitsburg, Md.; Ursuline Convent and Motherhouse of the Immaculate Conception, Louisville, Ky.; Provincial House of Sisters of Divine Providence of Kentucky, Mel-

bourne, Campbell County, Ky.; Motherhouse of Sisters of III. Order of St. Dominic, Mission San José, California; Marillac Seminary, Central House of Daughters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul of St. Louis Province, Normandy, Mo.

The large number of superintendents of charity, and of specialists in the field of child care, who have placed their broad knowledge and long experience at our disposal, have laid us under a very heavy debt. We wish especially to express our appreciation to the following, who have given us literally days of their time devoted to reading and to commenting on the tentative drafts of the chapters: Rev. Dr. Karl J. Alter, Miss Grace Buxton, Very Rev. John J. Cronin, C.M., Miss Madorah Donahue, Rev. William J. Egan, Mr. Leon Faulkner, Miss Leslie Foy, Dr. Leon W. Goldrich, Mr. F. W. Hopkirk, Sister M. Ignatius, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Rev. Joseph Kroha, Miss Mary S. Labaree, Miss Sara Laughlin, Rev. Dr. Edwin L. Leonard, Rev. Bryan J. McEntegart, Miss Rose McHugh, Mrs. C. E. Mattingly, Rev. Patrick G. Moriarity, Rev. Patrick A. O'Boyle, Rev. Thomas O'Dwyer, Rev. Dr. John O'Grady, Rev. Thomas J. Park, Miss Ethel Perrin, Sister Miriam Regina, Rev. Joseph Retka, Sister M. Rose, Sister Rose de Lima, Miss Luella Sauer, Rev. Edgar Schmeideler, O.S.B., Rev. C. A. Simona, S.C., Rev. H. S. Spalding, S.J., Sister Miriam Theresa, O.H.N., Mr. Henry W. Thurston, Rev. Daniel Tully.

We wish also to express in special manner our appreciation to the following experts in the field of child health and hygiene who kindly reviewed or offered suggestions on the chapters on health: Dr. Donald B. Armstrong, Dr. J. L. Blumenthal, Miss Clara Bradley, Dr. William M. Champion, Dr. Walter Clarke, Dr. S. J. Crumbine, Dr. Clara Hayes, Dr. Joseph A. Johnston, Dr. Sylvester R. Leahy, Dr. Oscar B. Markey, Miss Elizabeth Miller, R. N., Dr. Margaret M. Nicholson, Dr. Henry C. Shumacher, Dr. Thomas A. Storey, Miss Anne Whitney, Miss Pauline Brooks Williamson, Dr. Thomas D. Wood.

We are deeply indebted to the Children's Bureau, Cleveland, Ohio; the Department of Public Welfare, Columbus, Ohio; the Catholic Welfare Bureau, Los Angeles, California; the Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York, New York City; and the National Conference of Catholic Charities, Washington, D. C., who so kindly released the workers to us for the field study.

The present writer wishes, too, to voice his personal appreciation of the devotion, thoroughness, and high ability with which the members of the field staff, Miss Florence M. Mason, Miss Frances Hoynes, Miss Alice T. Padgett, Miss Florence L. Sullivan, and Miss Margaret B. Wise, carried out their difficult task. He wishes in a special manner, too, to express his gratitude and appreciation to his able assistant throughout the whole study, Miss Regina Flannery, to whom he committed a large share of responsibility from the beginning and who is the author of the chapter on Plant and Equipment of the present volume.

JOHN M. COOPER.

CHAPTER I

RELIGIOUS CARE AND TRAINING

Scope of Chapter. Religion is a life to be lived. "I am the way, and the truth, and the life." It is not a one-day-a-week affair. It is a thing to be lived seven days a week and twenty-four hours a day. It guides, molds, inspires, and saturates life from dawn to dawn and from the cradle to the grave. It is the dynamic of higher life and living, the mainspring of character and of moral achievement.

The Catholic child derives from his religion four great aids to better living: a guiding ideal of life in his relations to God and man; convincing grounds for admitting this ideal as reasonable and right; impelling incentives and motives for accepting it as his own and striving for it; and God-given means and helps for living it.

The ideal is inculcated by the teaching of Christ and of the Church on man's duties to God and to his fellow-man. The reasons and motives are given in the Church's doctrinal teaching regarding God and man. These doctrines provide the grounds that convince the intellect of the reasonableness of the moral ideal. They likewise provide the impelling motives that move the will to accept and pursue the ideal. The doctrines concerning man, his nature and his destiny, offer the self-regarding motives. The doctrines concerning God, the Father, Creator, Redeemer, and Sanctifier of His human children, offer the higher, unselfish motives. Finally, access to the God-given means and helps toward living up to the moral ideal is opened through the teaching of the Church on grace, prayer, Mass, and the Sacraments.

Catholic doctrinal teaching is therefore most intimately related to Catholic moral teaching. Moral teaching and doctrinal teaching are an integral and integrated unit. The former gives the child a moral ideal. The latter gives him the reasonable grounds, the impelling motives, and the helping means, for admitting, accepting, and following out the moral ideal.

Worship, prayer, attendance at Mass, frequentation of the Sacraments, and kindred devotional practices are not mechanical, routine forms. Nor are they intended merely as the expression of spiritual emotions and hungers. They are an integral part of and a vital force in higher life. Worship is a primary moral duty of man to God. Prayer, the Mass, the Sacraments, and devotional practices are the means of obtaining Our Father's help in our endeavors to live life on high moral levels, to love God, to fulfil our neighbor's needs and to respect his rights.

Religious education includes both instruction in religious and moral truth and training in the actual practice thereof. Methods of moral training in habits like honesty, truthfulness, charity, and chastity will be dealt with in the chapter entitled "Moral Training". In the present chapter we shall confine attention chiefly to religious instruction and to training in worship, prayer, attendance at Mass, frequentation of the Sacraments, and kindred practices. Special emphasis will be given to the chief problems in religious training that are peculiar to or of particular urgency in the child-caring institution.

The child-caring home enjoys certain distinct advantages in carrying out its task of religious training. At the same time, it labors under several grave handicaps.

The chief advantage is that the child is trained on a basis of twenty-four hours a day and twelve months a year. Training is continuous as in the home, not broken as in the day school. In addition, the whole child is dealt with. This is of great value, as religious achievement both influences and is influenced by all other activities and conditions of life. Finally, the atmosphere of the child-caring home is a profoundly religious one.

These and other advantages are, however, offset by certain severe handicaps. First, the institution's most subtle and deadly foe, routine, is not easily vanquished, and in no field is routine more subtle and deadly than in that of religion and of religious education. Secondly, many of the children who enter the institution have been reared in an atmosphere of religious neglect and laxity. Many of an age approaching to or within the teens have never made even their first confession, have never or rarely been to Mass, and, as for instruction, have not learned the simplest rudiments of faith

and worship. Thirdly, the turnover in institutions is becoming increasingly rapid. Instruction and training often have to be intensive, foreshortened, of an emergency type. Fourthly, the children are cut off from the normal religious conditions and influences of home and parish life. On their return thereto, after discharge from institutional care, major readjustments of religious life and practice often have to be made, and many graduates make them with great difficulty or, at times, not at all successfully.

These handicaps raise a number of major religious problems for the child-caring institution. The three outstanding problems seem to be: What can be done to offset routine by emphasizing voluntary worship and devotions? How can the neglectful, lax, and uninstructed children be given adequate emergency coaching in their religion? What measures are feasible to make religious life in the institution approximate religious life in the home and parish?

We shall devote the first part of the present chapter to the consideration of these three major problems. We shall then take up in order the questions of attendance at Mass, administration and frequentation of the Sacraments, and public and private devotions and religious practices.

As regards the three major problems presented, the task of the child-caring institution is, in kind though not usually in degree, similar to that of the boarding school. As regards Mass, the Sacraments, and devotions, the task is practically identical. At any rate, the child-caring institution can profit by the experience of the boarding school. *Vice versa*, the boarding school can profit by the experience of the child-caring institution. We may be permitted to express the fervent hope that a study may soon be made of current experience, methods, and policies in our Catholic boarding schools. The cause of religious training would undoubtedly gain much from such a study and from the consequent interchange of experience between the individual boarding schools as well as between the boarding schools as a group and the child-caring institutions as a group.

A. THE THREE MAJOR PROBLEMS

I. THE VOLUNTARY VERSUS THE OBLIGATORY SYSTEM

a. *The Question.* Attendance at Mass on Sundays and holy-days of obligation and the yearly reception of the Sacraments of Penance and Holy Eucharist are required by Church law of all Catholics who have reached the age of reason, and naturally are so required of the children by all our institutions. Such minimum canonical requirements do not enter into the question here at issue. The question is: In how far should attendance at Mass and other religious services and frequentation of the Sacraments, over and above these minimum canonical requirements, be voluntary or obligatory for the children in our institutions?

In the pages immediately following, we shall give chief consideration to attendance at weekday Mass. As to attendance at other services, the same policies and principles should in the main apply as apply to attendance at weekday Mass. As to reception of the Sacraments, there is general agreement that this should be free from disciplinary coercion.

b. *Present Trends and Policies.* The present drift in our Catholic child-caring homes seems to be very definitely away from obligatory attendance at week-day Mass and other services and toward either wholly voluntary attendance or a compromise plan under which attendance is left in part to the free choice of the child. Of fifty Catholic institutions from which adequate information was obtained, about twenty operate on the obligatory plan, twenty on the voluntary plan, and ten on the compromise plan.

The excerpts that follow illustrate three things in particular: the actual obligatory, compromise, and voluntary plans in use; the chief grounds presented by our institutions in support of the respective plans under which they operate; the results in attendance under the voluntary plan.

(1) *The Obligatory Plan.* Under the obligatory plan, all the children, or at least all over about six or seven years of age, are required by the rules of the institution to attend daily Mass and other public services.

It is the desire of the Church, although not a precept, that Catholics attend daily Mass. We should therefore inculcate

the ideal practice, not merely the minimum Church requirement. (# 108)

If attendance be voluntary, some children would absent themselves just to be different. In a good Catholic family, the children understand the mind of their parents, and are not left free to attend or not to attend Mass or family prayers. (# 81)

If attendance at week-day Mass is left entirely to the individual, many children will remain away for fear of being called pious or hypocritical. (# 339)

First the institution should reproduce the religious life of the ideal Catholic family, not of the ordinary one. The members of the ideal family attend daily Mass. Secondly, under the voluntary system, those children are most apt to absent themselves who most need the grace and help given by daily Mass. Thirdly, the voluntary system presupposes character and will well-formed and mature. Our children are immature. Fourthly, if love, confidence, intimacy, cordiality, cheerfulness, and family spirit prevail in the relations between staff and children, obedience to the rule of daily attendance will be voluntary and willing, and will be given gladly, as obedience is given to a "father who holds in his hands the hearts of his children". (# 338; cf. *The Preventive System in Education as in Use in the Schools of the Salesian Congregation* [of Don Bosco].)

(2) *The Compromise Plan.* Under the compromise plan, the children are required by rule to attend Mass on certain week days, but not on others. Attendance at Benediction or other public devotions may also be wholly or partially optional.

Attendance at week-day Mass is obligatory on Fridays only. (# 22, # 13)

Week-day Mass is obligatory only on Fridays and special feast days. Boys who desire to attend Mass daily are allowed to do so. The Sister Superior considers that enforced religion does more harm than good to boys in an institution. She wants them to love their religion and to seek its ministrations voluntarily. (# 20)

The Senior boys and girls are required to attend week-day Mass twice a week, the Juniors once a week. (# 106)

The older children, divided into groups, attend week-day Mass twice a week. The children attend Benediction with their respective groups once a week, and daily during October, March and June. (# 67)

The children go to Mass on special feast days, and on every morning during Lent and during the months of May and October. This plan was put into operation two years ago. The Superintendent maintains that many children reared in institutions later become careless, because while in the institution they have been surfeited with devotions and do not discriminate between what is of obligation and what is purely optional. He feels, in addition, that the religious training of the children should be patterned on such religious training as is given to a Catholic child in its own home. He further holds that it is not conducive to the health of children to get up so early every morning and to have to wait so long for breakfast. As a result of the shift in plan, the children are more earnest in their religion. They go to Mass because they want to go. (# 27)

Seniors and Juniors attend Mass on all feast days of first and second class. In addition, Seniors attend on all school days during Lent, May and October, and Juniors (7 to 11 years old) on Wednesdays and Fridays during Lent, May and October. On all other week-days, attendance is optional. Children under seven attend only on Sundays and holydays. If some special occasion has kept the children up later than usual at night, they are not awakened for week-day Mass the next morning. Benediction is given every Sunday, on all week-days that are first-class or second-class feasts, twice a week during Lent, and nightly during May and October. All Seniors and Juniors attend. About ten per cent of the Juniors attend Mass on week-days in addition to Wednesdays and Fridays. During the summer about five per cent rise for week-day Mass. No effort is made to urge attendance on holidays and in the summer. Of the Seniors who attend Mass daily, at least seventy-five per cent are daily communicants; of the Juniors who attend on Wednesdays and Fridays, about ninety-five per cent who have made their first Communion receive on these days. (# 88)

The children attend Mass on Wednesdays and Fridays throughout the year. Attendance on other week-days is

optional. During this Lent all but three or four of the children are attending voluntarily every day. During May and June, when Benediction is given after Mass every morning except Sundays, more than half of the children attend daily of their own choice. (# 123)

We approve of the custom of assisting at week-day Mass twice a week, the choice of days being left to the children. (# 117)

Week-day Mass is obligatory only on First Fridays, and during the Forty Hours' devotion, the annual retreat, and the annual novena to St. Joseph. About ninety per cent of the boys come to the chapel every morning during Mass. (# 126)

(3) *The Voluntary Plan.* Under the voluntary plan, attendance at week-day Mass is left to the free choice of the children. The plan of course *does not work automatically*. It is not sufficient just to declare attendance optional and then to expect results. On the other hand, persuasion and encouragement have to be given tactfully, lest in practice they be tantamount to moral coercion. Of these points more will be said later.

Attendance at week-day Mass is optional. Most of the children communicate daily. (# 36, # 52)

The inauguration of the voluntary plan of week-day Mass and Communion was accompanied by a series of sermons on the sublimity of the Holy Sacrifice and on the value of frequent Communion. Results: more devout assistance at daily Mass and more frequent Communions. (# 54)

Attendance at week-day Mass and other services is non-compulsory. At the time of the visit made by the field worker it was observed that all but two of the children attended the week-day Mass. Many are daily communicants. (# 64)

The children are urged, but not obliged, to attend week-day Mass on Fridays, when Mass is usually followed by Benediction. If it be noticed that a girl is inclined to be careless, appeal is made to her individually. (# 81)

Attendance at daily Mass is optional. About one half of the children actually attend. The Superior feels that children must be given only as much religion as they can reasonably be expected to live up to after they leave the institution; that even if only a small percentage of the children should attend

daily Mass, this ought not to be alarming, as most persons in ordinary life do not attend daily Mass; that one reason why some children reared in institutions neglect in later life their religious duties is that they have been "fed up" in early years on formal devotions. Nearly all the children go to Communion every Sunday. (# 55)

Except during September, attendance at week-day Mass is optional. Over and over again it is drilled into the children, particularly in talks by the chaplain, that such attendance is optional. The results have been as follows. When the optional plan was adopted several years ago, sixty to seventy-five per cent of the children dropped off attendance, except on days when attendance was obligatory. Active measures were then taken to increase optional attendance, until at present the average attendance of the boys, apart from the youngest groups, ranges from about fifty per cent in the summer time to about eighty-five per cent in October. The measures by which this attendance was secured will be explained later. Back of the foregoing system is the following key idea in the mind of the chaplain and of the sisters. The object of our religious training of the children in the institution should be *to make him spiritually independent of environment*. Many of the children who come to institutions have had little or no religious training, and, after they leave, may rarely say a prayer, unless love for and the habit of prayer are instilled into them. The greatest obstacles to this begetting of spiritual independence in a child are routine and coercion. If a boy prays, goes to Mass, and so forth, because the other boys do so, or because he feels he will be penalized if he does not do so, the chances are that the habit thus formed will not be lasting. When, after departing from the institution, he no longer sees his companions praying and going to Mass, he is likely to discontinue doing so himself, unless he has acquired a love and desire for prayer and Mass, and has insofar become independent of his environment. If he has practised his religion merely at the call of a bell or through compulsion, the chances are that he will give up the practice when he leaves the institution and gets beyond bells and compulsion. The child should be helped to realize that his religious practices are duties to God and are necessary for his own higher welfare. So far as possible, his religious duties should be attractive in themselves and should be followed freely. (# 66)

c. *Discussion.* In a discussion of the voluntary versus the obligatory system, there is no place for dogmatism and cocksure assertion. As the foregoing excerpts show, reasons that deserve careful and prayerful consideration can be advanced for and against either plan. In the discussion that follows we lean, it is true, somewhat more to the side of the voluntary or compromise plan. We do so, however, in no opinionated spirit. But we feel strongly that, while final demonstrated conclusions cannot be drawn in the present state of our knowledge, the encouraging results obtained to date through the voluntary and compromise plans justify and urge ample further experimentation with them.

We shall discuss the problem from three standpoints: the mind of the Church, the experience of our institutions, and the underlying educational principles.

(1) *The Mind of the Church.* It is agreed on all sides that the mind of the Church favors daily attendance at Mass and daily Communion. This is the higher Catholic ideal. It is further agreed that daily Communion should be wholly voluntary, and that attendance at daily Mass from free choice is better than attendance from disciplinary rule.

Voluntary attendance at week-day Mass and at other services is unquestionably closer to the mind of the Church as expressed in her legislation. By Church law, attendance at Mass on Sundays and holydays is made an obligation of conscience, while attendance on other days and at other services is left optional. The Church recommends and urges such week-day attendance. She does not make it obligatory by law or rule. In a word, she promotes two ideals: a minimum one as obligatory by law, and a maximum one as optional.

To secure the maximum spiritual good to her members, the Church relies primarily, not upon disciplinary laws, but upon persuasion, upon the education of the individual conscience. Her laws represent probably not ten per cent of the many means she uses to help her members to love God and neighbor better and to win eternal happiness. Most of the means she uses are purely persuasive and educative rather than legislative or disciplinary. Even her laws do not force or coerce in the manner that civil legislation or institutional rules do. The Catholic obeys the law of the Church, not

from physical or disciplinary compulsion, but from motives of conscience, loyalty, faith, and goodwill.

The Church realizes intensely what superabundant graces flood the soul from attendance at daily Mass and at other services. Nevertheless she seems most anxious to maintain the principle of spiritual free choice and option, except as regards the minimum requirements of the precepts. She appears, too, to take into account the fact that her members differ in degree of piety, and that, if legislative requirements were too strict, widespread neglect and alienation would result or else many of her less fervent members would be surfeited with so many obligatory devotions.

The objectives and circumstances of our seminaries and novitiates are such as to justify required attendance at week-day Mass and other services as a matter of course. Candidates enter seminaries and novitiates of their own volition. A fervent piety is expected of them. In the priesthood or the religious order, celebration of or attendance at daily Mass is taken for granted. A candidate for the priesthood or for a religious order who would be unwilling to live up gladly to such recognized requirements would not be apt to make a good priest or a good religious.

In their objectives and circumstances, our child-caring homes differ widely from seminaries and novitiates. The children in our institutions have not ordinarily entered of their own choice. They are not selected for their more fervent piety. They are preparing to lead the life of the layman and laywoman in the world. The special reasons therefore that counsel obligatory attendance at week-day Mass and other services in the seminary and novitiate do not hold for the child-caring home.

Are there, however, other conditions, peculiar to child-caring homes, that call for an exception to the general policy of the Church? We cannot fairly urge the immaturity of the children as a valid ground. The Church ever echoes the words of her Founder: "Suffer the little children to come to me". But she does not oblige them by law to what for their elders is left optional.

The fact of daily Mass being said and other services being held under the same roof should certainly be proposed to the children as a strong incentive for them to attend. But absence, even though voluntary, can hardly be called disrespectful. Catholics who live

within the shadow of the parish church or housekeepers who reside in the parochial residence are not stigmatized as lacking in respect or as disloyal if they fail to profit by their nearness to the altar. Nor of course does the Church require attendance of them by precept or regulation.

Owing to the increasingly rapid turnover in the population of so many of our institutions, it might be urged that the intensive religious training so frequently demanded should include obligatory attendance at daily Mass. There is certainly something to be said for this consideration. But is it wise to force growth by disciplinary measures? Is it not wiser to trust to persuasive measures brought to bear intensively upon the individual child who appears neglectful? The experience of our institutions seems to show that where such persuasive appeals are made to the child individually, they nearly always succeed in procuring voluntary attendance, particularly where the prevalent spirit of the institution has established such a tradition of voluntary attendance among the great mass of the children.

A special condition, or rather a special opportunity, of the institution that is urged in favor of required attendance is the fact that the institution can and should be modeled upon the ideal fervent Catholic family, not upon the ordinary or average or tepid Catholic family. In the ideal fervent Catholic family, the parents and their children attend daily Mass and other supererogatory public devotions as a matter of course. This point is no doubt worthy of serious thought. Apropos, however, of the point several questions may legitimately be raised. Whether in home or in institution, attendance is in the last analysis either optional or obligatory. There is no true *via media*. Attendance "as a matter of course" may be optional or obligatory. It cannot be both, or something between the two. If obligatory, it may be rigidly, sternly, and authoritatively required by parental or institutional rule. It may be graciously, mildly and lovingly required. But in either case it is required. It is obligatory and is enforced under a possible penalty, and the child knows this. That it should not be enforced by parent or institution in a rigorous and stern spirit is generally agreed. If required, every means must be taken to bring about convinced, willing, and glad obedience. But even so, is this, after all, what occurs

in the good Catholic family or even in the exceptionally fervent one? Are the children really *obliged* by parental rule of obedience to attend daily Mass and other services? Are they not rather urged, persuaded, appealed to, and advised to go? They may be "expected" to go, and they may actually go "as a matter of course", but in the final analysis is not their going a result of voluntary choice?

In the good Catholic home, and even in the exceptionally fervent one, while it is taken for granted that the children go to Mass on Sundays and holydays, and are reminded of their duty if they forget, they are not ordinarily obligated beyond this by parental command, nor are they made to attend daily Mass under penalty. When all is said and done, they choose freely, although influenced in their choice by parental example and loving counsel, and perhaps too by the prevalent custom of the community.

(2) *The Experience of our Institutions.* The tendency in our institutions is very noticeably away from the obligatory plan and toward the voluntary or compromise system. The same tendency seems to prevail in our Catholic boarding schools. From actual experience with the two latter systems, there appears to be a growing conviction that while the obligatory system has certain advantages, these are appreciably outweighed by the advantages of the voluntary and compromise plans. Since the field study was made, a great number of comments on the three plans as outlined in the mimeo draft have been sent in from our institutions. With few exceptions, these comments are favorable to the voluntary and compromise plans.

Agreement with this favorable view is not universal. Nor does the widespread maintenance of the view constitute a final demonstration of the validity thereof. The most enthusiastic advocates of the voluntary and compromise systems would no doubt agree that further evidence and experience may counsel modification of their present views. But one seemingly very significant fact stands out: The institutions that have tried the voluntary and compromise plans feel, after their actual experience with them, no desire to return to the obligatory system.

(3) *The Underlying Educational Principles.* (a) There is no more important objective in the religious training of the child, par-

ticularly of the child in the institution, than the one expressed in an excerpt given on a preceding page: *The child should be made spiritually independent of his environment.* If the habit of attending religious services depends upon compulsion, discipline, and bells, the chances are that, when the child leaves the institution and external factors such as these are absent, the habit itself will die for lack of stimulation. If religious habits are built upon external environment, — and a disciplinary rule is part of external environment, — they are not apt to survive changes in the environment. They must be built up from within. If they are to endure in life outside the institution, they must be built upon repeated acts performed out of a sense of duty and of inner conviction of their value.

Sense of duty and inner conviction of value are not of course incompatible with obligation by external rule. But where the external rule exists, less emphasis is apt to be placed by child or preceptor or both upon inner sense of duty and conviction of value. There is a tendency in all of us in positions of responsibility to be content with outward conformity to rule on the part of the young committed to our care. This tendency can of course be offset and overcome, but it is a subtle enemy that can easily become dangerous, or even deadly, if external rule is permitted more than a minimum rôle in religious education.

Further, while sense of duty and conviction can be present even though the act itself be required by rule, yet they appear to thrive better when the act is done out of free choice. As one Superior has expressed it:

“Moral habits are not the result of mechanical processes. They are not a result of physical action, but are formed by the repeated free actions of the will. In consequence, freedom is the soil in which character grows, and self-determination, or individual choosing is the method by which all moral habits are developed and therefore, too, the habit or virtue of religion. Routine in institutional life easily becomes deadening and monotony is one of our worst enemies. Obligatory attendance increases these dangers. Voluntary attendance at religious exercises helps us to escape from them. The latter introduces the personal element into the child’s

life substituting individual choice in the place of a forced routine imposed by the sound of the bell" (Sister Deegan, *Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov., 1928, xii, 328).

(b) There is a widespread feeling among the superiors and staffs of our institutions that obligatory attendance at daily Mass and other services turns a certain number of children against religion and religious practices. It induces the reaction that is tersely summed up by them as "too much religion". To quote Sister Deegan again:

"There is danger when children are obliged to attend Mass each morning, to go to confession in groups each week and to take part in frequent novenas or long devotions, that they will become surfeited, not with religion, but with the forms of religion. There is a very real danger that the vital spark of religion may be quenched in a multiplicity of devotions and religious exercises. Religion may, in consequence, because of its association in the mind of the child with early rising, long hours, interruption of play and general discomfort, become so distasteful, that on his leaving the institution he may indulge his freedom to such an extent that he does not even keep the commandments of the Church with regard to religion, much less continue his practices of supererogation" (*loc. cit.*, 328).

Another superior, one who, like Sister Deegan, has had long experience in the institutional field, puts it even more strongly:

"We sisters should be careful that we do not impose upon our children the exercises of our community" (Sister Helena, *Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov., 1928, xii, 327).

Children differ in piety and fervor. For many, the full schedule of public devotions customary in religious communities would not cause the reaction referred to. Many other children are less pious and fervent, and sometimes less docile and compliant. Too many devotions, particularly if obligatory by rule, may easily dampen what piety they have and may arouse inner antagonism to religion as such. This reaction will often result, after they leave the institution, in neglect of even the minimum practices of worship required by the precepts of the Church.

No doubt a dilemma exists. If the obligatory system prevails, such children are apt to become surfeited and turn against all religion. If the voluntary system prevails, they are apt to absent themselves, and many of them may be just the children who most need the aid of grace and religious devotions. There is no perfectly satisfactory solution of this dilemma. If the spirit of kindly love rather than that of stern authority be the prevalent one, the danger of surfeit and inner rebellion is lessened. But can it be eliminated where attendance is obligatory by rule? As previously noted, there is no true *via media* between obligation by rule and freedom from rule. The obligatory system, however lovingly imposed, remains obligatory and is recognized as such by the normal child.

Under the voluntary system, can we avert the danger of absence on the part of those children who most need grace and the spirit of devotion? Probably not completely, but certainly in very large measure, and in the great majority of cases. The experience of a number of our institutions proves this conclusively. They have done it. The chief method has been that of individual attention to the children observed to be negligent and careless. Of this more will be said later.

Incidentally, under the voluntary system, the neglectful tendencies of the less fervent are more clearly revealed than under the obligatory plan. Being more readily observed, they can be diagnosed and treated with better hope of religious fidelity in after-life. Then, too, the varying responses of the children to the voluntary system are reminders to the staff to study each child individually, to learn each child's special religious assets and liabilities, strong points and weaknesses, and, in the light of this knowledge of the individual child, to coach and train him to better religious and devotional ways. Devotional training, like all religious and moral training, is usually successful in proportion as it departs from mass education and approaches individual education.

“As in other phases of training, if freedom be given the children in this important matter, they will show their natural tendencies, thus giving sisters a chance to guide and cultivate them. They cannot all be formed to piety in one mold; each child's personality should be regarded and his or her intelligence considered” (Sister Helena, *loc. cit.*, 327)

(c) It is important to impress on the child's mind the difference between what in worship is obligatory by Church precept and what is not. The voluntary plan seems to meet this purpose best, as it teaches the difference by deed and by living practice.

"Observance of Sundays and holydays of obligation should be stressed to an exaggeration if that be possible. There should be not only the hearing of Mass but also the refraining from all housework except what is absolutely necessary. The children should be dressed, if not in their best, then in something different from everyday wear. Innocent recreation should of course be allowed. Community feasts while celebrated by the sisters with all solemnity should not have the standing with the children that holydays have, or there will be a hazy understanding as to which feasts are of obligation" (Sister Helena, *loc. cit.*, 327).

d. *Practical Procedure.* Institutions operating or planning to operate under the voluntary or composite system have two chief practical problems to meet: the supervision of the absentees, and the encouragement of voluntary attendance. Some of the measures through which these problems are being successfully met will now be given.

(1) *Supervision of the Absentees.* Under the voluntary or composite plan, some of the children may be expected to remain away from week-day Mass or other services. How can proper supervision be maintained over them during their absence?

"We sisters", Sister Deegan writes, "must remember that our institutions exist for the children, and not the children for the institution" (*Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 329). Sister Rose de Lima adds: "Are not the Sisters sustained by their own unselfish love of God and of one another in their sacrificial life for children? And if in their encouragement of the voluntary system they are called upon to make that greatest of all sacrifices for religion—deprivation of Mass and of Holy Communion—is there not sweet compensation in drawing little souls to God?" (*Ibid.*, 325.)

On the other hand, it is certainly of the utmost importance, not only for the religious welfare of the sisters themselves but also indirectly for that of the children, that the sisters have reasonable

opportunity of attending Mass, of making their morning meditation, and of being present at other religious services and exercises. The dilemma may at first blush appear insoluble, but in reality it has been solved satisfactorily in various ways.

The children are left in bed during Mass in the morning while the sisters go to Mass. No problem has arisen. The children just keep sleeping quietly until the sister returns from Mass and awakens them. (# 27)

On Wednesdays and Saturdays, when the sisters attend Mass in their small domestic chapel, they just come to Mass and leave the boys sleeping. No trouble has been experienced. (# 66)

The first of these two institutions had, at the time of the field study, 156 children, boys and girls, ranging in age up to fourteen; the second, 342 boys, ranging in age up to fifteen, the majority being between six and ten. While the plan of no direct supervision has seemingly worked quite successfully in these two institutions, many superintendents and sisters elsewhere consider that some form of supervision is called for. Emergencies, they say, such as fire or illness, may arise, or disorder may break out. The majority, therefore, of our institutions provide some form of supervision for the absentees, given by the sisters in turn, by reliable paid help, or by older responsible children. This third or last method suggests practices that are common in families.

"In a number of our institutions we have tried out the following system with satisfaction. The sisters in charge of the various groups come to the chapel for morning prayers and points of the meditation, then return to the dormitory where they make their meditation. Every other week the teachers relieve these sisters, thus giving them the opportunity of making their meditation before the Blessed Sacrament with the community. A reliable maid replaces the sister in charge of the junior and baby groups, to permit her to leave for Mass. For the senior group [aged 12 to 18] the problem is solved by putting them on their honor. Occasionally one of the sisters leaves the chapel during Mass and goes on a tour of inspection to make sure that proper order is being maintained" (Sister Deegan, *loc. cit.*, 329).

"In large missions [homes] where there are a number of children, the sisters stay from Mass in turn to take care of these children. In small missions, the 'angel' [the sister in charge of the children in general] stays with them until the Mass bell rings, when one of the more capable older girls,—and these in turn,—takes her place, the sister returning when Mass is over" (Sister Helena, *loc. cit.*, 326).

Four of the sisters remain out during Mass each morning to preside in the infirmary, the two dormitories, and the kitchen. (# 106)

The sisters take turns in taking charge of the children. (# 13, # 124)

Each week seven sisters are appointed to look after the children who remain abed and who may have been awakened by the early risers. Children of high school and elementary school age require supervision. By this plan each of the seven sisters appointed in turn misses Mass only one day a week (Sister Rose de Lima, *loc. cit.*, 325; similar plan, # 349).

A sister is left in charge of each dormitory. (# 11)

All the sisters attend Mass every morning. One of the older girls takes care of the small girls, and an older boy looks after the small boys. (# 109)

We have found it a very satisfactory plan to let the older reliable girls take turns in staying away from Mass to take charge of those children not attending. Thus all have a chance to attend Mass most days during the week. These girls are very anxious to attend week-day Mass and often express regret when their turn to watch the younger children prevents them from attending. (# 108)

From all reports received during and since the field study, the administrative or disciplinary problem is seemingly quite satisfactorily met by one or other of the foregoing plans. These plans differ in degree and method of supervision in accordance with the age of the children, the size and organization of the institution, and other local conditions.

A minor administrative problem is that of arranging for the awakening of those children who wish to attend Mass. A common method that works well is for the boys to notify the one in charge

of their group the night before that they wish to be awakened, and for the girls to hang their veils over their beds as a sign to the sister to awaken them. They are counseled to rise and dress quietly so as not to disturb the children who remain abed.

(2) *Encouragement of Voluntary Attendance.* The second problem arising under the voluntary system is the danger, as one sister has expressed it, lest the system of voluntary attendance result actually in voluntary absence. There is a very strong feeling among many sisters that we should not be troubled even though only a minority or even only a small fraction of the children actually attend daily Mass and other services not required by the laws of the Church. After all, they say, the majority of good Catholics living in the world do not ordinarily attend Mass every day. Account should, however, be taken of the fact that a high proportion of the children have not had a deeply religious background before coming to the institution and will lack such background after they leave. Consequently their religious training during their stay needs ordinarily to be somewhat intensive. Furthermore, voluntary frequent or daily Mass and Communion are strongly recommended by the Church. What means, then, can be used to encourage voluntary presence?

A voluntary system does not work automatically. By this is meant that under the voluntary system we cannot just sit down and expect things to happen. Definite measures should be taken to encourage voluntary attendance. At the same time we must be scrupulously careful lest the measures taken be not actually equivalent to moral coercion, however earnest be our desire and intention to avoid pressure. Great tact is needed.

Some of the chief means being taken to encourage voluntary attendance at week-day Mass and other devotions are given in the following excerpts and comments.

By means of short sermons, of classroom instruction, or co-operative work and of example, the children are taught what the Mass is and what place it holds in the life of every Catholic. They are also carefully instructed how to hear Mass, the older children being gradually trained to the use of the Missal. Interest in the liturgy serves to stimulate many children to

voluntary attendance at week-day Mass. If a child likes to attend week-day Mass, she will usually of her own accord become a frequent or daily communicant.

Since voluntary attendance at our religious exercises must spring from inner motives, we try by every means in our power to awaken and foster in the child *a personal love for our Lord*. The child must come to know Him in an attractive way. Religious instruction for the younger children centers around the mystery of the Incarnation. Their first Holy Communion is a great opportunity for becoming intimately and personally acquainted with our Lord. If you get the children to know Him, you will get them to love Him.

Let your children know that you pray for them, that on special days you offer your Holy Communion for them, that at Benediction you ask our Lord to give each of them a special blessing. This will help to make the children feel that they have a place in your own religious program and that they are worth the best you can give them. They will respond by thinking more highly of their own religious life, and will go to our Lord willingly, because you yourself lead them and go with and for them. Religious pictures are a great help both for conveying information and for eliciting good impressions. It is the unseen presence of what the picture represents that attracts their hearts.

The "children's hour", modeled on the old evening talks of the household around the hearth, may be turned into an enjoyable and profitable religious instruction. Grouped around the sister, in a room not too large or on the lawn under a tree in summer time, the children come to the story-telling hour just before bedtime once or twice a week. With full recreation-time freedom to exclaim and question and relate, they are captivated by the story of our Lord, they see something more of Him, they are drawn toward him, and, in their wish to do something for Him, the glad desire to go to Mass and to receive Communion springs up in their hearts in a quite natural way.

Children from the seventh grade and up are able to read the Gospel narrative from the New Testament text itself, if the book is placed in their hands. They take to the little book and keep it as a companion when they leave the institution. The reading of the Gospels teaches the children, as much as any

program of instruction does, the facts about the life and personality of our Lord, and almost infallibly awakens and fosters inner motives for the voluntary practice of their religion. (# 206)

Most of us who grew up in our own homes learned love of our religion largely from intimate heart-to-heart talks on religion and life with our own mothers. Would this not suggest that in the institution love of religion must be inculcated, less by routine and group practices, and more through heart-to-heart talks of the kind between staff member and individual child? Is it not more through such methods that the average child gets a keen conception of God as his Father and of Christ as his Friend? (# 326)

The all-essential thing is leadership. Where there is zeal, love, intimacy and personality in leadership, the real spirit of religion and voluntary attendance at devotions usually follow naturally. (# 339)

We never find difficulty regarding our children attending week-day Mass, when the service does not last too long. (# 108)

The children are encouraged to form a special intention each day for assisting at Mass. (# 200)

One institution is planning to put into operation the following schedule: to awaken the child at 6:30 or 6:45 a. m., the hour at which children commonly arise on school days in families; to distribute Holy Communion at about 7:00 or 7:15; to serve breakfast shortly thereafter; to have optional attendance at Mass at about 8:00 or 8:30, with school commencing at 9:00. (# 72)

From the beginning of the school year early in September until the end of the month all the boys are required to attend Mass on week-days as well as on Sundays. Every morning during the month, the chaplain gives a short (three to five minutes) sermon at Mass explaining to the children the value of the Mass, the importance of it, its meaning, etc. Meanwhile outlines are given to the class-room teachers on the subject of the Mass, and these outlines form the content of the class-room religious teaching throughout the month. The sermons deal more with the value, meaning and importance of the Mass. More detailed data, such, for example, as the meaning of the ceremonies of the Mass are left for class teaching. In addition,

there is an essay contest in each class in the school and a prize offered for the best composition on the Mass. The chaplain reads, corrects, and marks every paper, each child sending in a composition. When the prizes are awarded the first ten boys read their compositions in the presence of the chaplain and all the boys.

On the first Sunday of October, the chaplain announces that hereafter the boys are entirely free to come to week-day Mass or to stay away, as they wish. This is repeated over and over again,—twenty, fifty, or a hundred times,—until it sinks in thoroughly. They are also told that they have been asked to come to Mass every day during September so they will know what the Mass is, its meaning, value, etc., in order to be in a position to make their own choice as to whether they wish to come thereafter freely.

During October, the boys are encouraged to attend Mass in honor of the Blessed Virgin, this being the month of the rosary. In November, they are encouraged to come to help the Poor Souls, especially their own deceased relatives. In December, they are encouraged to come as a preparation for Christmas. In January there is a lull. Mass during January is said three or four mornings a week in the sisters' domestic chapel instead of in the large one, and thus the boys remain in bed these three or four mornings a week. By February and March, Lent has set in and the boys are encouraged to come as a Lenten devotion. This may carry over into part of April. Again in May, they are encouraged to come in honor of the Blessed Virgin. In June a lull occurs again as in January.

During the summer, there is a general toning down of the encouragement to come voluntarily. Usually however most of the boys come on Friday, as Thursday is confession day, but even during the summer about fifty per cent of the boys, especially the older ones, turn out daily.

Another important detail is this: On Wednesdays and Saturdays each week throughout the year the chaplain says Mass in the small private chapel of the sisters instead of in the boys' larger one. This means a break brought about automatically, and the boys sleep over on these two days. (# 66)

If a change from the obligatory to the voluntary or compromise plan is contemplated, the ground should be prepared, else first re-

sults may prove discouraging. The excerpts and comments just given suggest the following practical counsels, either where change is being planned or where the voluntary or compromise system is already in operation.

(a) Build up the *inner motives* for voluntary attendance by intensively fostering among the children a real love for their religion and for the Mass, and particularly a deep personal love of God their Father and of our Lord their divine Saviour and Friend. Some means by which this can be and is being done are summarized in the following suggestions.

- i. Give the children a thorough knowledge of the meaning, value, and beauty of the Mass and of other religious services.
- ii. Give them an intimate knowledge of our Lord Himself,—through instruction in chapel and class room, through reading of the Gospels, through generous use of pictures, through free dramatization, through informal narration (as in the “children’s hour”), and, above all, *through heart-to-heart talks with the children taken singly or in very small intimate groups*. Such small groups may preferably consist of the spontaneous chums, gangs and sets already existing among the children.
- iii. Train the children to go to our Lord and to attend Mass and other services with a definite purpose and intention,—a purpose or intention chosen by each child for himself, even when such purpose or intention may have been suggested in a general way by the current devotion of the month or liturgical year.
- iv. Teach them thoroughly how to hear Mass, giving them choices of method, and, for the older children, showing them how to use the Missal itself. On this point, see *infra* under “Mass”.
- v. Work toward these ends with complete cooperation and teamwork and with full mutual understanding and joint planning, on the part of chaplain, superior, group mothers, class teachers, and other members of the staff.

- vi. Tone down or keep in the background external motives and incentives, neither over-praising children who actually attend voluntarily, nor chiding those who absent themselves.
- vii. *Make personal and individual but incidental and inconspicuous appeal* to such children as are notably lax or negligent. On this point, see following section 2.
- viii. Manifest to the children your *personal* interest in them both as a group and *individually*, by letting them know that you pray for them and that you offer your Mass intention for them. Ask them also to pray for you. The child likes to know and to feel that he is both helping others and being helped by them.

(b) Create *external conditions* that will facilitate and support the children's own inner motives and impulses.

- i. Be sure the services are not too long. Long services, especially before breakfast, kill the best of good intentions and impulses.
- ii. Have Mass at not too early an hour,—ordinarily as late as is at all consistent with local conditions and limitations.
- iii. Strongly emphasize the element of variety, in order to offset or prevent routine and strain: by tying up devotions and attendance at morning Mass with the liturgical year, particularly with the seasons of Advent and Lent, with the special feasts, and with the month devotions; by allowing for lulls during certain months or during the summer time; and by arranging that on certain days of each week or on holidays the children will more or less automatically remain abed until breakfast time.

2. UNINSTRUCTED AND LAX CHILDREN

Under any system,—voluntary, compromise, or obligatory,—a considerable number of children will be found who are markedly uninstructed in their religion or notably lax in the practice thereof. A certain number of the children who enter the average Catholic boarding or day school are apt to be uninstructed or lax. This

percentage is commonly much higher in child-caring homes, which so many of the children enter from an environment of religious indifference and neglect. Some institutions consider meeting the needs of the uninstructed and lax as their most important problem in the whole field of religious care and training. They look upon it as a problem even more important than the one of religious education in voluntary devotion, as, in fact, the chief justification and *raison d'être* of the Catholic child-caring home. If in the present chapter we give less space to its consideration than to that of the voluntary system, we do so, not because we consider it less important, but because it is a less complex and less mooted problem and can be treated in fewer words.

a. *The Uninstructed.* As regards the uninstructed children, some of our institutions give them particular coaching in their religion, either singly or in small groups. It may be recommended that each child on entrance to the institution be given a short informal test to discover the extent of his religious knowledge. Such information obtained at the beginning of his residence will help determine the instruction necessary in each case. If we insist on a physical examination on entrance, it is surely not too much to insist on a spiritual one.

b. *The Lax.* As regards the lax children, the following plan used in one institution speaks for itself :

No records are kept or taken of the boys who attend Mass. However, the mothers and teachers know very well the boys who are attending. If they find a boy habitually staying away from Communion, or from Mass on days when it is optional, they mention the fact to the chaplain. In such a case, the chaplain takes occasion to meet the boy incidentally on the playgrounds, engages him in conversation, and tactfully brings up the question of Mass and Communion. He tries also to get at the cause of the boy's absence, always making amply clear to the boy that no pressure is being brought to bear and that the boy is perfectly free to come or not to Mass or Communion.

The school teachers are responsible for the boys going to Confession during the school year ; the group mothers, in the summer. No sister is in the chapel while the boys are going to Confession, and no disorder results. If a teacher or mother

notices that a boy is neglecting Confession for a long time, she mentions the fact to the chaplain. She herself is usually asked then to speak to the boy. If he does not respond, nothing more is said or done for about a month. Then the question is up to the chaplain himself. He follows the same procedure of meeting the boy incidentally on the playgrounds and of speaking to him offhand. Usually the boy talks very freely and nearly always ends by going to Confession and Communion again. Throughout the whole procedure, however, it is made very clear to the boy that he is perfectly free in the matter. (# 66)

Speaking generally, we may make the following suggestions regarding the individual child who is lax about his religious duties.

- (1) *Reach the child individually but not too formally.* Make it a point to have a talk with the child quietly, inconspicuously. Do not make too much fuss about it. Do not bring too much pressure to bear, particularly pressure that might in any way, *however remote*, be interpreted by the child as coercion, threat, or displeasure. If too much fuss is made with some types of child at least, he may continue in his course merely to attract attention or to start excitement. If too much pressure be brought, there is danger lest the child go to the Sacraments for external motives. The individual approach that is kindly, sympathetic, off-hand, and inconspicuous is the better way.
- (2) The approach is best made through *someone in the institution who already has the confidence of the child.* As Sister Helena has expressed it: "A heart-to-heart talk with one sister to whom the child seems to be drawn, and the recommendation of two or three days' Communion may have its effect." (*Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 326.) Whether this approach should be made by some sister or by the chaplain is a point on which both practice and opinion differ in our institutions.
- (3) It is important to find, where possible, the cause of the laxity. This cause may be very complex and remote, or it may be very simple. The child may merely lack instruction in and knowledge of the value of the Mass and the

Sacraments. In such a case the natural remedy is to give the child some intensive instruction. On the other hand there may be a conflict with some serious fault or habit. If the child can be gotten to frequent the Sacraments again regularly for a while, a long step will have been taken toward the correction of the fault or habit. There may be still other causes.

- (4) In all cases it is very important that every effort be made to *discover the cause*, so that treatment can be given for the cause itself rather than for the symptoms only. Often consultation with the social worker familiar with the child, his history and his background, will throw much light on the cause of his laxity. Again, reference to his case record on file in the office will often help appreciably toward diagnosing the physical, psychical, social, or religious cause or causes that may lie back of the laxity itself or of the habit or other obstacle that is responsible for the laxity. The technique of diagnosis and treatment is dealt with in somewhat further detail in the chapter on "Moral Training".

While it is of great importance that the child be left free as regards his religious exercises, particularly reception of the Sacraments, on the other hand watchful care, quite distinct however from anything like spying, is imperative lest the child suffer from his own freedom. As one chaplain expresses it: "It is the vigilance of the sisters against the perversity, carelessness, and laziness of human nature". The spirit of reasonable freedom should be safeguarded. The child should not be spied upon. Nor should he get the impression that he is under strict surveillance. Nevertheless sympathetic watchfulness on the part of those who are in charge should be constantly exercised.

The above paragraphs seem to sum up the policies in our institutions that have been most successful in dealing with the uninstructed and the lax child. In leaving this subject, we wish to emphasize again that the relatively short treatment given to this problem is no index of its relative importance.

3. INSTITUTION, PARISH, AND HOME

All who have experience in child-caring agree that, where a child has to be removed from its own home, the substitute home or institution should be as much like a normal home as possible. Religious life in the institution is no exception to this rule. The more closely the religious life of the institution is modeled upon the religious life of the parish or good home, the more apt are religious habits learned in the institution to persist after the child leaves. Again, children on leaving the institution, especially if their stay therein has been longer than average, often feel strange and embarrassed at first introduction or at re-entrance to parish life. They are acquainted with neither the customs nor the people of the parish, and this strangeness and embarrassment make the continuance of their religious habits harder, or may even lead to neglect. Finally, if the children are returned to homes in which religious indifference and neglect prevail, the religious habits taught and acquired in the institution may die.

With these conditions and hazards in mind, our institutions are working out a number of methods and devices for modeling religious life in the institution on that of the parish and good home, for encouraging participation by the children in parish life and activities, and for rebuilding, where necessary, the religious spirit of the child's own home to which he will return.

(a) *Duplication of Parish and Home Life.* (1) *Religious Services.* Many institutions endeavor to have their services conducted as they are in parish churches, particularly in the local parish churches. The Epistle and Gospel are read in English at Sunday Mass, and a short sermon is given. It is felt that the sermon should be very brief. In one institution, the chaplain rigidly limits himself to three minutes, or at most five; in another, to a maximum of ten.

Pastoral letters, papal encyclicals, and similar communications are read at Sunday Mass just as they are in a parish. If such a communication refers to a collection, the children are asked to pray for the work concerned in lieu of making contributions. The sisters talk frequently in class regarding current affairs of the diocese. (# 68)

The chaplain writes the weekly announcements in a book and reads them from the altar on Sunday. Such announcements

include: feast days of the week; special services that will take place in the chapel during the week; Masses that will be said each day, with the intentions for which they are to be offered; and other points pertaining to religious happenings in the institution. (# 72)

A few copies of the diocesan paper are gotten for each class from the sixth grade up, and a few for the children's library. Catholic periodicals are also obtained by voluntary subscriptions. (# 11)

Many of the children have Masses said for their relatives and friends. (# 14)

(2) *Confessions.* With a view to making institutional life similar to life outside, Confessions are heard in a good many institutions at the same hours as in the ordinary parish. Further suggestions toward bringing the institutions close to the parish or outside life are contained in the following three excerpts from study reports:

The children do not go to Confession in groups or classes, but always singly as they please. Ordinarily, children are on the playground during confession hours on Saturday evenings and slip into the chapel to Confession and then out again to the playground. (# 88)

Confessions are heard during recreation period every Thursday afternoon without fail from 3:15 until 5:15 or 5:30 or as long as the boys continue to come. The boys have to choose then between continuing their play or interrupting it for a quarter of an hour or so while they go to Confession. This is about what a boy has to do who lives at home and goes to his parish church for Confession. The boys do not go in groups, by classes or grades, but individually, freely and when they wish. On Thursday afternoon at Confession time, the sisters remind the boys that this is Confession day but do not urge them to go. The urging is done from the pulpit. The small boys six or seven years old go in a group on Thursday afternoon at 3:45. These are mostly third-grade boys who on account of their age need a little more group routine and group action. (# 66)

(3) *Morning and Night Prayers.* In a seemingly growing number of institutions, the children say their morning and night

prayers quietly and singly, each child kneeling at his own bedside, instead of saying them aloud and in common, in the chapel or elsewhere. The custom of family prayers has unfortunately all but disappeared among most American Catholics. There appears to be little likelihood that it will revive, in the near future, especially in the religiously neglectful homes from which so many children in institutions come. If children are trained in the institution to say their morning and night prayers at their own bedsides, the habit seems to have a better chance of survival after the child's discharge, than it has when the children are accustomed to say them only aloud and in unison. Some account has, of course, to be taken of the age of the children.

The very small children learn and say their prayers in groups under the supervision of a sister. But from the fourth grade on, they say their morning and night prayers quietly, each at her own bedside. (# 25, # 121)

The children are trained to pray at their bedsides, even though they come to the chapel in the morning and evening. Otherwise they would be apt, on leaving the institutional régime, to forget their morning and night prayers altogether. (# 68)

Morning and night prayers are said by the boys singly, each at his own bedside. Each boy has his own copy of the booklet containing morning and night prayers. He reads his prayers from the booklet even though he knows them by heart, as the printed word helps to keep away distractions. These prayers are said in chorus occasionally, perhaps once or twice a month, for the sake of change. The booklet of prayers is kept in the dormitory or at the boy's bedside. The group mothers from time to time have family prayers, which however are said downstairs and not in the dormitory, so as to be distinguished from the private duty of morning and night prayers. Any other religious practices which the devotion of the individual mothers might suggest,—such as the sign of the cross on awakening, sprinkling the dormitory with holy water, etc.,—are allowable so long as they are short and will not surfeit the boys with religion. It should be impressed on the boys that it is up to them to say their morning and night prayers; but the sisters in charge should know whether or not they are actually saying them. As for the small boys, the kinders and first graders, the sister in charge of them gathers them around her at night

just before they go to bed, and they say night prayers together as might be done in a private home. She tries however as soon as possible, according to the children's ages, to put them on their own responsibility and to have them kneel singly. (# 66)

Under either system, — prayers in common or prayers at bedside,—measures must be taken to see, first, that children know their prayers, and, secondly, that they know them correctly. Individual checking or testing is necessary to see that each child knows the more common prayers. Children deficient in knowledge need special coaching. Knowledge of prayers may well be included in the entrance examination in religious knowledge which was suggested on a previous page. While under the system of prayers in common, the children easily learn the prayers, they learn and say them often in garbled and bizarre ways. "Give us this day our steak and bread" is given in one comment, as an example of the numerous startling mispronunciations and misconceptions that arise. In fact, this hazard is one of the drawbacks to the system of prayers in common, though it is present also under the other system. As means of meeting this problem it may be suggested:

- (a) That individual testing and teaching of newcomers be carried out systematically;
- (b) That the classroom teachers give special attention to the point in religious instructions and drills;
- (c) That, as is the custom in one institution, all the children be required to write out their prayers in full from time to time, at least once a year, and to submit the paper to the sisters in charge to be checked and corrected.

(4) *Church Support.* This is a feature of institutional life in which it is not easy to make the institution like the parish or to impress on the child one of the Church's laws. Children in an institution are apt to come unconsciously to think that the Church should always give to them, never they to the Church. While the problem is a knotty one, yet certain solutions have been worked out that, in part at least, meet the situation.

When a diocesan collection is taken up, the pastoral letter relative thereto is read, the purpose of the collection is explained,

and the children are asked to pray for the work concerned in lieu of making financial contributions. (# 68)

The chaplain explains to the children the purpose of the offertory collections taken up at Mass. He tells them how the early Christians thus made sacrifices by giving gifts of food, etc. He further makes clear that financial sacrifices are not requested of children in the institution because the diocese is helping it; but that the children are expected to give some substitute, such as praying for their enemies, paying attention to the prayers, not distracting their companions, and so forth. (# 71)

A number of institutions have altar societies the members of which look after the altar. Of course, too, where there are boys old enough, they are trained to serve at the altar. Both of these types of service can be interpreted to the children as being given in place of financial support of the Church. But where possible, material contributions, however small, are preferable from the habit-training standpoint.

The children who receive no funds from relatives or friends are given a chance of earning a little spending money by doing chores and odd jobs around the institution, in addition to their assigned chores. Thus all the children have some money of their own. Passing around a collection basket even for pennies would undoubtedly cause embarrassment to those children who have nothing at the time to contribute. The superior, after consultation with the staff, asked the girls, on the occasion of the exposition of the Blessed Sacrament, if they would be willing to give a little of their spending money to help purchase the flowers on the altar and thus show their love for the Blessed Sacrament. The response was so satisfactory that an organization was formed among the girls and was called the "Altar Society". Membership in it is entirely voluntary and those who join do so because they wish to. Dues for the younger children are five cents a month, when they can afford it; for the older children, ten cents. Dues are payable monthly, yearly, or in quarterly instalments. Careful record is kept of the membership list and of the dues paid up. There is no publication of the "financial standing" of members. Children belonging to the society have the benefit of Mass for their living relatives and for their deceased parents.

The society is a very flourishing one. It has kept flowers on the altar every day for the last two and a half years, except on the days when the liturgy prohibits flowers. The altar linens have been replaced during this period. There are now nearly one hundred dollars in the treasury. The finest flowers are bought from the best florist. The children are told and know that their contributions are purchasing the flowers and linens and they take great pride and pleasure in it.

When older children leave the institution to go to work, the institution secures for them a position and a boarding place, and encourages and helps them in making their budget. In the budget a small amount is set aside, at the suggestion of the sisters, for the Church collection. In this way the habit built up within the institution is carried over after the child leaves. (# 11)

Often the children of their own accord give small donations for vigil lights or for flowers to decorate the altars on special occasions. (# 108)

When a boy is sixteen or over, suitable work is found for him in town, but he is allowed to lodge and board for a short period at the school. When he brings home his pay envelope, the brother in charge helps him make out his budget, including a small portion of it for the Sunday collection which in this parish church is on the envelope system. (# 45)

(b) *Participation in Parish Activities.* A number of our institutions have found it possible to arrange to have the children, particularly the older ones, attend Mass or other services in the parish church. As Sister Helena has expressed it: "Children should be allowed to go to confession and to Mass at the parish church when that is possible. When they go to Mass they should always have something for the collection. They should go in small groups and mingle with the congregation." (*Cath. Char. Rev.*, 1928, xii, 327.) In some places it is the commendable practice to have the children just go singly as outside children go from their own homes.

On Sunday, some of the older girls who have little duties which necessitate their remaining in their departments, especially the infant department, attend Mass at the parish church. When-

ever there is a special service at the parish church, the children are permitted to go. (# 25; # 106)

Older girls are encouraged to go on Sunday to a second later Mass, at the parish church. The children may go to Confession every second week at the parish church at the regular parish hours, and in twos or singly if they belong to the older group. (# 55)

The older children often attend evening devotions at other parishes. They appreciate this very much. We have never had any trouble in having them come home directly from the services. (# 108)

Our 7th and 8th grade boys always go out alone to Confession. (# 121)

The children are allowed to go outside to Confession if they so desire. (# 27)

Confessions are heard regularly by the chaplain, but the older girls are permitted to go to Confession at the parish church if they wish. (# 79)

Various devices are also used, when an older child is leaving the institution and going to work, to introduce him a little more intimately to parish life. This first introduction should be followed up until the process of adjustment to parish life is well established. Such follow-up is an important phase of general after-care.

The boy is taken by the brother to the parish church. He is put in touch personally with the pastor, and is encouraged to go to parish affairs, and thus to meet the people. The brother in charge of the institution feels very strongly moreover that, even before the boys leave, they should often go outside of the parish church, so that when they leave the school they will feel quite at home in the parish. (# 45)

The children are sent over from time to time to the nearby parish church for various services. Girls from the eighth grade and high school go to the parish church for Lenten devotions and for novenas. When a child is old enough to leave the institution and a place is found for her, the superior gets in touch by letter with the pastor of the parish in which the girl will be located and gives the girl a letter of introduction to the pastor. Due to the fact that great interest in the League of

the Sacred Heart is fostered at the institution, the child has still another motive for joining the parish league and for becoming associated with parish affairs when she leaves. Many of the girls become promoters. (# 11)

In one institution (# 27), the children and adults from the neighborhood are welcome to attend services. At the two week-day evening devotions in Lent, people of the neighborhood often drop in. In addition, the sodality in the institution is conducted just like a sodality in a parish church, and children from the outside, as well as those who are living in the institution, belong. This plan of having outside children or adults attend services in the institution should of course be dependent on considerations of the parish welfare and on the judgment and consent of the parish priest. Where, however, the plan can be carried out, it goes far, as it has done in this particular institution, toward knitting the institutional child more closely to parish life and toward showing the children in the institution that there is no difference between what is expected of them and what is expected of people outside.

Anything that can be done to encourage participation by the children of the institution in parochial activities and devotions, such as May processions, Confirmation and first Communion, visits to the Blessed Sacrament in the parish church, novenas or other exercises, seems certainly worth while. The same may be said of membership on the part of the children in parish societies.

So far as local conditions permit, the children should be given opportunity to take part with other children in the social and recreational activities of the parish. Such activities are not, it is true, the most important thing, but they have their place in building up parish loyalty, unity, and spirit, and participation in them by the children of the institution is good, not only for the religious health of the children but also for their mental health.

(c) *Religious Rehabilitation of the Child's Home.* Everything possible should be done to build up religious life in the child's home during his stay in the institution. *It will avail little to build up the religious life and habits of the child during his stay in the institution, if at the end he goes back to a home environment in which religious indifference or neglect prevails.* Blood is thicker than

water. Home environment is usually far more potent an influence than institutional environment. By far the largest number of our children are discharged to parents and relatives.

In many institutions, a great work is done quite informally by the sisters, who profit by parents' visits to the institution to bring back the neglectful to the practice of their religion and to instil into them a deeper sense of their faith. The following further suggestion speaks for itself:

Use the occasion of the child's First Communion to strengthen home ties and to bring errant parents or other relatives to a sense of their shortcomings, by inviting them to attend the ceremony. An invitation to receive with the child will rarely be refused, especially if the child himself requests them to receive. (# 317)

Other special occasions, such as Christmas, Easter, Confirmation day, or the child's birthday, may be taken advantage of for the same purpose.

It would be hard to exaggerate the importance of religious rehabilitation of the child's home. No single task of sister or Catholic social worker is more urgent and imperative. If the question is here dealt with very briefly, this is because the problem of general rehabilitation of the home is treated at length elsewhere, in the chapter on "Social Policies". In measures of general rehabilitation, the premier place should be given to religious rehabilitation.

B. THE CHILD'S RELIGIOUS HABITS AND PRACTICES

Children in our institutions are being trained for life in the world. Efforts should be concentrated upon helping them to build up such religious and devotional attitudes, habits, and practices as we expect the normal, good, practical Catholic layman or laywoman to have,—not less, not more. It is true, allowance may have to be made for peculiar institutional conditions, such as rapid turnover and many children's unreligious background, and for the consequent necessity of intensive training. But intensive training is not the same thing as excessive religious exercises. Ordinarily, as a superior previously quoted has expressed it: "Only as much religion should

be given the child as he can be expected to live up to after he leaves the institution ”.

Adequate treatment of methods of developing right religious attitudes would involve treatment of almost the whole field of religious education and would carry us far beyond the scope and limitations of the present manual. We shall merely call attention in passing to what appears to be the basic factor, under divine grace, in promoting desirable religious attitudes. This factor is the spirit of the institution, as reflected in the personality of the staff, in the children, and in the mutual relations of love, confidence, intimacy, cheerfulness, and friendliness between the individual members of the staff and the individual children.

Where real love and reverence characterize the children's attitude toward those who stand to them in place of their earthly parents and of their heavenly Father, love and reverence will usually be found toward God Himself. Under such conditions, the religious attitudes of the sisters become contagious. The spirit of religion is “caught” from them by children and in turn is transmitted to other children. But, commonly, it is contagious only in proportion as love, understanding, intimacy, and interest obtain on the part of the sisters toward the *individual* child.

Religious instruction or even religious training in exterior practices can to a certain extent be carried on by mass methods. But training in desirable religious attitudes and in the inner spirit of religion is carried on against great odds, unless done by individualized methods. Children can with difficulty be trained to such inner attitudes of love and reverence, as biscuits are baked,—by the dozen. Individual training is imperative. The children must be reached one by one.

If love, confidence, and esteem are present, more can be done in a quarter of an hour by a casual heart-to-heart talk between sister and individual child than can be done by hours and weeks of group instruction and appeal. In real religious training, three are always a crowd. It is significant, in this connection, that in the confessional there are never more than two present. Thrice blessed are the children where such intimate individual chats and coaching are the central method in the institution's plan of religious training. Thrice blessed, too, is the institution where the sisters have this in-

spiring custom of teaching the most sacred things of religion as the best mothers teach them to their own children,—apart, singly, confidentially, lovingly, intimately.

We turn from the question of basic inner religious attitudes to that of habits and practices. Habits include, of course, both inner attitude and external practice, and external practice without inner attitude would be of no worth. If, in the following pages, a little more space is given to what may appear as external practices, the reason is that it is in connection with external practices more than with inner attitudes that the majority of problems peculiar to the institution arise. It is with these special institutional problems rather than with the whole field of religious education that the present chapter is chiefly concerned.

The habits and practices to which we refer center chiefly around the Mass, the Sacraments, and public and private devotions and practices. We shall now deal with these in order.

I. MASS

a. *Hours.* In the majority of our institutions, week-day and Sunday Mass is said at 6:30 or 7:00 a. m. In a good many, the hour is a little later on Sundays and during the summer time than it is on week-days and during the school year.

In determining the hour for Mass, the whole schedule of the institution has to be considered. There would probably be general agreement, however, that an hour as late as is consistent with the general schedule of the home is advisable for the children's Mass. Early hours may find the children inclined to drowsiness and may make attendance at Mass as distasteful as early rising itself may be.

b. *Length of Morning Services.* As a result of the marked increase in week-day Communions during the last two decades, low Mass alone on a week-day easily runs into thirty-five or forty minutes. If in addition to Mass, thanksgiving after Mass is allowed for, and Benediction, novenas or other prayers or services are added, the stay of the child in the chapel in the morning is apt to last an hour or even longer. Most of those who have to do with children in their early years agree that such a stay in chapel is much too long. It is a psychic strain that is apt to breed distaste in many. It may be a physical strain for many children who find it hard to fast so

long before breakfast. Ordinarily speaking, the morning service including thanksgiving and other prayers or devotions should not run beyond a half hour or thirty-five minutes, or at the most forty.

c. *Posture.* Kneeling upright, if prolonged, is physically very wearing, sometimes even for adults trained to it by long years of practice. The child should not be expected to kneel ordinarily more than about five or, at most, eight or ten minutes at a stretch. If he suffers appreciable discomfort from long kneeling, he will be thinking much more of his discomfort than of his prayers. The Church carefully provides for this in her liturgy. The kneeling should be broken by standing and sitting. It may be advisable also to have the children sit during part, at least, of their rosary, thanksgiving after Mass, and so forth.

d. *Manner of Hearing Mass.* Distractions, monotony, and routine are apt to be acute hazards when attendance at Mass is frequent or daily, or even when it is only weekly. Variety and change in methods of assisting at Mass help to offset these dangers. Children differ in their religious tastes, just as adults do. Methods found helpful by one child may be found a hindrance by another. Moreover, we all like to follow our own methods of hearing Mass, and the Church is careful to leave us complete freedom in this regard. Free choice is of special value for the child in the institution. The following practices have the advantage of providing variety and free choice.

Each child has a book entitled "The Holy Sacrifice of the Altar," which gives several methods of hearing Mass. Three days a week the children use this book, changing the method each week. On two days a week, they say prayers from their own prayerbooks. (# 88)

Each boy has two prayerbooks, so he may use either of them at option. (# 121)

No group prayers whatever are said by the children at Mass. They are carefully instructed in the various ways of assisting at Mass, and each child follows the way he likes best. (# 66)

While the Church leaves absolute freedom as to the method of assisting at Mass, her preference is for the liturgical method of

following the prayers of the Missal itself. This method offers great variety and change, from day to day, and from season to season of the ecclesiastical year. The ancient, venerable and majestic prayers of the Missal carry far more impressive a message of the religious spirit than does or can the soft and stilted phraseology of most modern prayerbooks. Many of our institutions and boarding schools have introduced the older children to the use of the Missal itself, as a prayerbook for Mass, and have found that the children take to it eagerly. Missals in English are now easily available at very reasonable cost.

Our children seem to value the Mass so much more since they have been taught to use the Roman Missal and to follow the prayers and actions of the priest during the Holy Sacrifice. (# 349)

The older children are gradually introduced to the liturgy and thus are led to follow the proper of the Mass. They are given the Roman Missal. They are informed beforehand what Mass will be read, according to the diocesan ordo, and are told how to prepare their book so as to avoid useless searching after the Holy Sacrifice has begun. Later, when they have become familiar with their Missal, the prescribed Mass is indicated on a bulletin board or blackboard in the room where the children assemble in the evening. The interest in this liturgy, so varied and so beautiful, will in itself stimulate many a child to voluntary attendance at Mass on week-days and to frequent or daily Communion. (# 206)

There is a good deal of difference in practice regarding group prayers by the children during Mass. The custom prevails in many parish churches. If the prayers do not occupy too great a proportion of the half hour, they may lend variety. They probably have some value in enhancing group spirit. If said carefully and slowly, they may help to teach uninstructed children their prayers. On the other hand, in view of the special importance of individualizing the child in the institution, it would seem to be better, all things considered, to have the children ordinarily follow their own bent and pray individually so far as is feasible. Many of the values of group praying are secured by group singing. If choice be made of hymns for which the children themselves are found by experience to have

a preference, voluntary attendance at week-day Mass will be increased.

In one of the Indian institutions, all the children make in unison the responses that are customarily made by the altar boy alone. The responses are read out of a small book of which each child has a copy.

The following plan contains a combination of group prayers, individual prayers, and singing:

On some mornings, the children recite the prayers for Mass together, singing a song before the Gospel. On other mornings, they have private prayers. (# 108)

2. THE SACRAMENTS

a. *Voluntary Confession and Communion.* While differences of view prevail as regards voluntary attendance at week-day Mass, none prevails as regards voluntary reception of the Sacraments of Penance and Holy Eucharist. By Church law, all Catholics who have reached the age of reason are obliged to go to Confession and Communion once a year. But the Church brings no further external or disciplinary pressure to bear. If, moreover, in an institution, too much pressure in the way of rule and disciplinary requirement is exerted, there is grave danger lest the child go to the Sacraments as a matter of routine or even in some cases unworthily.

With very small children, some routine even in the reception of the Sacraments is perhaps of value in building up habits. Nevertheless, every effort needs to be made to build up their habits from within and freely, and not merely from without and obligatorily.

For children beyond about nine or ten years of age, it is probably better to leave Confession and Communion entirely optional. The lax children can be reached through the methods that have been described in an earlier section of the present chapter.

It is theoretically possible, but practically very difficult if not impossible, to keep Confession entirely optional, if the children are brought to the chapel in groups for Confession. It is better for the older children to go singly, and not in groups. The administrative and disciplinary problems that may arise when group going is avoided have been solved simply and successfully in many institutions and can probably be solved in all.

The children should know clearly that Church law requires only yearly Confession and Communion. They should know that, so far as the precepts of the Church are concerned, more frequent Confession and Communion are optional. But it is not well to over-emphasize this minimum canonical requirement. The real stress should be upon voluntary, frequent reception. The Church urges this by every appeal short of legislative requirement. The value and need of frequent reception should be stressed.

In urging the children to frequent Confession and Communion, tact is called for lest urging be interpreted by them as mild coercion, and lest purely natural motives darken or eclipse the supernatural ones. What Sister Helena says of Communion is true also of Confession: "Children should not be praised too openly for communicating often; this might be a temptation for some. Above all, they should never be questioned, chided or teased if they refrain from communicating" (*Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 326). One priest (# 332) of long experience with institutional children even comments: "Why praise at all? They won't be praised outside." In any case, if praise be given, it should be carefully tempered. It need scarcely be added that, in urging the lax child to more fervor and frequency, nothing should be said that could be construed by him however remotely as a disciplinary threat.

b. *Confession.* (1) *Frequency.* No iron rule can be laid down as regards frequency of Confession. Fortnightly Confession, as is customary in many institutions, may be suggested as the basic practice for the average child. Some children may prefer to go only monthly; others may need or wish to go weekly. If the fortnightly custom is followed, it should be interpreted very flexibly to suit the needs and preferences of individual children. At any rate, all children should have opportunity to go weekly, and, if possible, a confessor should be available every day.

Confessions are heard every week. The boys are expected to go once a month, but are not obliged by rule. (# 20)

The boys are recommended to go about every two weeks. About sixty per cent of them go weekly. They rarely remain away beyond four weeks. (# 66)

Confessions are not enjoined by rule, to be made class by class,

on fixed days. A confessor is always on hand to receive penitents. (The Salesian system)

Apropos of this last illustration, it may be suggested that, where local conditions permit, the chaplain be accessible in the confessional a little while before Mass each morning or at some other good hour, as is customary in many of our parishes. The advantages of this plan are obvious.

Children go in groups to an outside confessor fortnightly, but the chaplain goes to the confessional every morning around Mass time, thus giving children an opportunity to go more frequently if they desire. (# 106)

(2) *Choice of Confessors.* This last excerpt brings up a matter that is of great importance, namely, that of freedom in choice of confessors and opportunity to go to a priest other than the regular chaplain. The Church insists upon the maximum possible freedom in the Catholic's choice of confessor, and has many canonical provisions for safeguarding the individual's needs and rights in the matter of access to outside confessors. The child's freedom, needs, and rights in the matter are quite as important as those of the adult, and should obviously be provided for by the institution in accordance with the mind of the Church as expressed in her attitudes, teaching, and legislation. While this is particularly true as regards older children, it holds for children of all ages.

From time to time, once a month at least, a confessor other than, or in addition to, the regular chaplain should come to the institution from the outside. If the regular chaplain is at all close to the children, there is a danger for some of them, if they have no other confessor to whom they can go. In a number of our institutions, outside confessors come in, either at regular intervals or from time to time, to substitute for or to assist the chaplain. Other plans that meet the same problem are described in the following excerpts.

Every Thursday morning, three priests come to give religious instruction. They then go to the chapel and hear the children's confessions. (# 132)

The children are free to go to the sisters' confessor on his weekly visits to the institution. (# 81)

Children always go to the parish church for Confession. (# 124)

Children are free to go to the parish priest for Confession whenever they wish. (# 109)

Different confessors come at least three or four times a year. If at any time a child expresses a desire to go to Confession on the outside, permission is always granted. If the child be too small to go alone, she is accompanied by an older girl. If any child is noticed staying away from Confession, the superior recommends a visit to the neighboring parish church at the time she knows confessions are being heard; any child knows enough to go to Confession when there, and there is no embarrassment. If a child has been guilty of some particularly wrong behavior and a sister learns of it, special arrangements are made quietly for the child to go to Confession on the outside. (# 11)

(3) *Hours for Confessions.* If definite hours on definite days are appointed each week, when Confessions will be heard, the children will know when they can easily find the confessor in the confessional, and they will thus be encouraged to come. It is well, however, where possible, if Confessions are also heard regularly each morning, for a short period before Mass, or, if more than one priest be available, during Mass.

In all cases, it is of extreme importance that ample time be allowed, so that individual guidance and counsel can be given to each child in the confessional. It may be tentatively suggested that an average of from two to three minutes per child be allowed for in determining the number of hours each week to be set aside for hearing confessions. Even in the most routine Confession, a great amount of religious self-activity on the part of the child is elicited by his preparation therefor. But if individual guidance and counsel are to be given, as Christ and His Church intend they should be in this clinic of the soul, the serious hazard of haste and routine has to be carefully guarded against by generous allowance of time for the children both as a group and individually. This hazard is apt to be more acute if the children go in groups for confession. "Large groups make for haste and sad consequences", as one priest (# 307) puts it. Incidentally he calls special attention to the needs of adolescent children.

(4) *First Confessions and Confessions of the Very Young.* Confession and the confessional may be a little strange to very young children, and, if the confessional be dark, a bit of shyness or timidity may appear. Very small children may also need some coaching in preparing themselves for Confession. The following plans are working successfully, and help, not only in overcoming the possible first feeling of strangeness or timidity, but also in establishing a sense of security and peace.

On the occasion of visits to the Blessed Sacrament or of preparation for first Confession, the chaplain or sister goes into the confessional with the child, shows him where to kneel, where the priest sits, how the slide works, and so forth. The younger children also see the older children going to Confession. (# 88, # 112, # 331)

The sister prepares the younger children thoroughly and teaches them to tell the priest all their difficulties. (# 112)

The sister in charge of the very small children speaks to them beforehand and asks any of them to come to her freely and she will help them if they have any difficulty in preparing to make their Confession. She tries to have the children feel toward her as they would toward their own mother. (# 81)

c. *Holy Communion.* (1) *Frequency.* The Catholic ideal is unquestionably *voluntary daily* Communion. The reasons for upholding this ideal are so obvious and well-recognized that we need not outline them in detail. Every effort should be made to help children attain this ideal. Every obstacle, personal or environmental, should be cleared away.

We may, however, in passing re-emphasize the importance of two cautions. First, persuasion and encouragements must be given tactfully, lest they be interpreted by the child as moral coercion and lest external natural motives cloud or eclipse inner supernatural ones. Secondly, the individuality of the children has to be reckoned with. Daily reception, even though entirely voluntary, may result in routine reception or in surfeit, with certain less piously inclined children. Wise and wide allowance has to be made for differences in individual children, and such allowance, to be made wisely, must be made in the light of intimate knowledge of each child. This

knowledge can come only from intensive, sympathetic study of the individual child.

Frequently repeated acts tend to become mechanical. Daily or frequent reception of Communion may easily become routine reception. Definite measures have to be taken to offset this tendency. Probably the best single measure is to link up frequent reception with the acquisition or correction of some one outstanding moral habit. Help the child to discover and single out his "pet fault" or the desirable habit he needs most. Encourage him to make the acquisition or correction of this habit the chief end and intention of his frequent or daily Communions, and to cling tenaciously to this one objective until he attains it or achieves real progress toward its attainment. This general method of selection and of persevering concentration is dealt with in fuller detail under the section on "Rules of the Game" in the chapter on "Moral Training". We are here urging close linking up with the practice of frequent Communion as a means to offset routine and to derive maximum spiritual profit from the practice.

(2) *Individual versus Group Reception.* Approaching the Communion rail in file, group by group or class by class, makes for order. But individual approach, such as is the custom in parish churches, is preferred by some institutions. Under this plan, parish conditions are more closely paralleled; less of an air of routine and regimentation and more of an air of freedom and individualization are prevalent; children, who for one reason or another do not receive, are less conspicuous; the possibilities, however remote, of unworthy Communions are lessened.

The boys rise here and there from their places and approach the Communion rail, just as is done in parish churches. All during the distribution, there is a continuous going to and returning from the altar. The members of the staff receive, not before or after the boys, but scattered among them, and side by side with them, just as parents receive side by side with their own children in parishes. (Institutions of Salesians of Don Bosco.)

(3) *First Communion.* Regarding first Communion, our institutions appear to follow about the same rules as to age of first

communicants as are followed in the parishes. In one institution, however, the chaplain has recently decided, in view of the religious retardation that is so common in institutional children, to make eight the basic age for first Communion instead of seven. But if individual children are ready at the age of seven, they receive their first Communion at seven. Formerly this one-year deferment might have been a little hazardous. But now, with the inauguration of more adequate social policies, the chaplain can be reasonably sure, either that the children will remain in the institution long enough to prepare for Communion, or else that first Communion will be made after the child is discharged to his home or foster home. We may merely emphasize that, while the acceptance of a basic age is valuable for general guidance, the final criterion is individual fitness.

A number of institutions have found it advisable to have first Communion more than once a year, on account of the rapid turnover. If large numbers of children are received and discharged, two or more first Communion classes per year are not only advisable but imperative.

First Holy Communion class is held three times a year. (# 49)

First Holy Communion is received usually on Holy Thursday and again in the fall. (# 81)

First Communion is received twice a year, on account of the rapid and large turnover. Otherwise it could easily happen that a boy would be eleven months in the institution without making his first Communion. The two occasions when first Communion is made formally are: the midnight Mass on Christmas, and the first Sunday in May. Instructions for the Christmas first Communion class start on October 1st. The boys ranging from the third grade up who have not made their first Communion enter this instruction class. Unless the boy is utterly backward in his catechism, every benefit of the doubt is given to him and he is put through. The instruction class for May first Communion begins February first and includes all boys from the first grade up. Usually the bulk of the boys in this class are in the first and second grades. Before Communion is received, each prospective first communicant is given a personal and private examination by the chaplain to see if the boy is sufficiently instructed. (# 66)

In very exceptional cases, it may be necessary for individual children to make their first Communion quietly, and to make their first solemn Communion with the other children later on. But there seem to be compelling reasons for recommending that this plan be resorted to only in the rarest emergencies, and that, even then, the first reception be surrounded with all the solemnity permitted by circumstances.

Should not the child's *actual first Communion itself be a solemn one?* It can be made solemn, even if there be only a half-dozen children to receive, and in fact if there be only one. The resourcefulness of our sisters easily rises to the occasion's need. A later Communion, however "solemn", can never take the place of a solemn first Communion. There is too obvious a touch of make-believe or artificiality about the solemnity. The solemnity, with all its external beauty and attractiveness, should attach to the wondrously impressive spiritual purification, exaltation, and joy of the very first Communion itself.

If at all possible, the child's parents or relations should be present at his first Communion, and, as previously suggested, should be urged to receive at the same time. Family affections, ties, and sanctities are enhanced. Wayward or spiritually negligent parents or relatives can often be gotten back to the practice of their religion.

In some institutions, the children are prepared for and make their first Communion with the children of the nearby parish or parishes. The feasibility and advisability of this plan depend to a large extent upon local conditions in both parish and institution.

d. *Confirmation.* The frequency with which Confirmation is given has to be determined by the size and turnover in the institution. Where the population is small, the turnover slow, and the average length of residence long, it would seem sufficient to have Confirmation every two or three years, as in the ordinary parish. Where, however, the population is large, the turnover rapid, or the length of residence short, it seems advisable to have Confirmation yearly, so some of our institutions find by experience. A number of institutions (e. g., # 112) have the children confirmed in the parish church, when Confirmation is given there, and, in the case of particular children, in one or other of the neighboring parishes. In

all institutions there occur a number of these particular or emergency cases. Arrangements can nearly always be made easily to have these children confirmed in one of the nearby parishes of the city or diocese. If this is not done, the child may leave the institution without being confirmed, and may never receive the Sacrament.

Confirmation supernaturalizes and consecrates the dawning of adulthood and the life tasks that then are ushered in. It makes us "perfect" Christians, that is, adult, full-fledged Christians. St. Paul might have expressed its meaning: Put away the things of a child; go forth in the power of your spiritual maturity; play your adult part, unselfishly, unflinchingly, courageously, in building up the commonwealth of God.

In one sense, Confirmation is the Sacrament of adolescence, as Baptism is the Sacrament of infancy. Formerly, the early teens were emphasized by the reception of first Communion. Now that first Communion is given around the age of seven, it would seem advisable to attach the greatest possible solemnization to Confirmation. The need is even greater than when first Communion was received near the age of adolescence. Confirmation comes at the extremely critical age of dawning adolescence. No care given to preparation for it is too great. No solemnity surrounding its reception is too much. It should stand out in the child's life as the great spiritual event of his teens.

3. PUBLIC AND PRIVATE DEVOTIONS AND PRACTICES

a. *Devotions in General.* (1) *Length.* A number of sisters call attention to the importance of having services reasonably short. One sister puts it: "Twenty minutes is long enough for children" (# 121). Probably nowhere does the rule obtain more fully that very few souls are saved after the first twenty minutes. Where the rosary, the Stations, novenas, litanies, or other devotions are followed by Benediction, they easily reach to a half hour or more, particularly if we allow for the time it takes the children to get in and out of the chapel.

(2) *Number.* Sisters also feel strongly that these devotions should not be too numerous. If novenas and kindred devotions follow too rapidly on each other or, as may occur, overlap, the children become surfeited.

One concrete rule may be suggested: Only one novena or devotion at a time. As to devotions in general, the broader rule should hold: Not too many; not too long.

(3) *Texts.* Care has to be exercised in choosing texts both for novenas and for the Stations. Most current texts are Greek to the child. Either they are utterly over his head, or else they express emotions and sentiments utterly out of tune with the normal American child's actual or potential religious feelings.

(4) *Voluntary or Obligatory Attendance.* As to obligatory or voluntary attendance at public services, about the same principles and counsels would seem to apply, as apply to attendance at week-day Mass. A number of institutions operating on the voluntary system have gotten excellent results. Some illustrations follow:

Attendance at Benediction and other public devotions is optional. Nearly all the boys actually come. Some "propaganda" is used by the sisters in charge of groups to get them to attend. (# 66)

Attendance at Benediction is voluntary. Seldom are any of the boys absent. (# 80)

Attendance at Benediction is not compulsory, but the children are anxious to attend. They do so without being reminded, when they know the devotion is to be held. (# 64)

b. *Benediction.* It appears that Vespers are sung in few, if any, of the institutions. But, in nearly all of them, Benediction is given on Sundays as well as on a number of other days of the year. In some, the Blessed Sacrament is exposed all day on first Fridays, and the Forty Hours' devotion is held, just as in parish churches.

The hour for Benediction differs. Many institutions prefer Benediction immediately after Mass on Sundays. This plan leaves the children free during the afternoon and evening for visitors and for recreation. Other institutions prefer an afternoon or evening hour. Some reasons for their preference are given in the following comments.

Benediction after Mass makes the morning service too long. (# 112)

Benediction is an evening devotion in parishes, and children will be more apt to attend it after they leave the institution, if they have become accustomed to it at an evening hour. (# 55)

If Benediction be in the evening, the parents, relatives and friends of the children have a chance to attend. Such attendance with their children often leads to excellent results. (# 55, # 209)

If Benediction is short and if the children have congregational singing during it, its attraction for them will be enhanced. If too many novenas, litanies, hymns, or prayers are attached to it, it soon runs into a twenty-minute or half-hour service. Generally speaking, it is best kept to a maximum of ten or twelve minutes. If it is, the children will be more likely to come gladly, and to acquire a love for it that will last beyond their stay in the institution.

c. *The Daily Visit.* There is universal agreement that the children should be encouraged to make a daily short visit to the Blessed Sacrament, and that they should go singly and voluntarily, as is the custom outside the institution. The saying of the rosary or Stations may well be combined with the visit, but should not take up the whole time. Ordinarily, the child's visit should be short. About five minutes may be suggested as a basic length, though of course the child himself should have full freedom in the matter. If the visit is too long, the practice may become an irksome burden for many, and thus be abandoned on leaving the institution.

d. *Rosary, Stations, Novenas.* In some institutions, the rosary and Stations of the Cross are said publicly; in others, privately; in still others, sometimes publicly, sometimes privately; in a few, the rosary privately and the Stations publicly. The voluntary, private devotion has obvious advantages. Through the public devotion, children who have had a poor religious background and training learn how it is practised. All things considered, a combination of public and private devotion may be recommended, with much the greater emphasis upon the voluntary private practice.

The rosary is said particularly during the months of May and October, but of course should be encouraged as a daily private devotion throughout the year. The Stations are more commonly said in public on the Fridays of Lent.

For immature children, the Stations, when said publicly, and the full five decades of the rosary, may be a little monotonous and a little long. If Benediction follows the Stations, the whole service may occupy thirty or forty minutes. Some institutions judge it better either to leave these two practices entirely or almost entirely to private devotion, or else to shorten, vary, or break them up in some way.

During Mass, the children say the rosary aloud, led by one of the boys. They discontinue after the offertory. Apart from this, the saying of the rosary is left to the individual child. Likewise the Stations of the Cross are not obligatory and are not said in common. The children are taught to make the Stations, and, particularly during Lent, many make them individually and voluntarily. (# 14)

The Stations of the Cross are made publicly during Lent, but there is singing between some only of the Stations, in order to shorten what would otherwise be too long a devotion. The full five decades of the rosary are not said very often in public, —only about ten times a year. Variety is introduced into the public saying of the rosary: the chaplain may kneel for the first decade, stand for the second, the boys doing likewise, and he may direct them to sit down for the third decade, etc. (# 66)

The rosary is said publicly only in October; the Stations, only in Lent. The boys like to sing between the stations. (# 121)

Novenas should be neither too long nor too many. Ordinarily, three or four during the year are sufficient. Two novenas overlapping or going on at the same time are one too many. The texts of most printed novenas are quite unsuited to children.

Each child should, of course, have his own rosary and prayer-book, and also his own scapular or scapular medal.

Apropos of devotions, the following custom offers an excellent suggestion:

If the children have been praying a certain number of days for a given request, such, for example, as the success of a drive, they always say some prayers of thanksgiving for the same number of days afterwards. (# 27)

e. *Grace at Meals.* Methods of saying grace at meals differ much. In some institutions, grace is said singly and privately, as this is the more common custom outside and as it helps toward building up the individual religious life of the child. In some, the saying of grace is led by the children in turn, the other children responding. In others, the small children say grace together, while the older ones say it singly. In others still, the individual and group methods are used alternately, in order to accustom the children to both methods. There appears to be greater preference for the last two of the above four plans, as allowing for age differences and as providing variety, flexibility, individualization, and opportunities for learning.

f. *Singing.* While selected choirs have their value, the importance of congregational singing should not be overlooked. Strong sentiment in favor of it seems to be universal among our institutions. The children like it. It helps to make the service attractive for them. It holds their attention. It enhances the beauty of the religious practice. It gives them an active part in the service. Hymns learned in childhood linger in memory through life. Even where the hymn as a whole is forgotten, bars and phrases from it endure, and so serve both to recall the spiritual experiences of early days and to fortify against the temptations of adult life.

It is of no little importance to change frequently the hymns, according to season and occasion,—especially Christmas, Easter, and the devotion of the month. The hymns selected should be intelligible to the child. Their meaning should be explained, where necessary, during practice, so he will know what he is singing. The thoughts and sentiments expressed in the hymn should be in harmony with the child's actual religious life and emotions, and not over his head or too gushy. In all cases, definite account should be taken of the children's own preferences, and definite measures taken to find out what hymns they actually like best.

Here and there it has been found possible to train the children to considerable skill in the rendition of the Gregorian chant. In any case, the responses for Mass and Benediction can easily be taught.

g. *Feast Days.* Most institutions make a special point of celebrating particular feast days. Such celebrations, linked up with the liturgical year, tend to instil both knowledge and love of religion.

On feasts of first and second class, special altar decorations and illumination are customary. On the material side, some extra delicacy is served at meals. On first-class feasts, a class party in each group takes the place of the evening study period. (# 88)

Toward the end of May there is a very solemn procession ending with the crowning of the Blessed Virgin at the shrine of the Blessed Mother which is near the girls' playground. The children who attend school at the institution have been saying the rosary outdoors before the same shrine every morning during the month. Crowds of people from the city attend the crowning. The ceremony is held at the end of May instead of at the beginning because of the bad weather usually encountered at the beginning of the month. (# 27)

Easter Sunday is a special feast. The various rooms of the institution are filled with flowers and a special Communion breakfast is provided in the hall for the happiest day in the year, the chaplain breakfasting with the children and the sisters doing the waiting. The tables are decorated with flowers, candles, and gifts. This is the children's day at the institution with their friends and relatives. (# 71)

h. *Special Customs.* In addition to feast-day celebrations, a number of our institutions have special religious customs, many of which might serve as suggestions. The following are four such features chosen from many.

At the summer home whither the children are taken for the hot months, all the children are allowed to play outdoors until dark, scattered around the grounds. Then one child goes through the grounds with a bell to give notice to the children to assemble in front of a bungalow at the far end of the ground. Here the children form in groups according to departments and, if the ground be not too damp, kneel and say their night prayers aloud. If the ground is wet, they say their prayers in the dormitories. But in either case before separating to go to their various dormitories they sing a hymn: 'Good-night to Thee, Jesus'. (# 22)

Every morning before school the children meet at the playground, and, after pledging allegiance to the flag, which is

raised in the morning and lowered at sundown, sing the hymn: 'Come Holy Ghost', before going to their classrooms. (# 39)

At ten o'clock in the morning and at two o'clock in the afternoon on school days, the children say together the short prayer, 'God bless our absent boys and girls'. The sisters feel that this custom has a splendid effect on the children who have left the institution, because these know that all the boys and girls are praying for them twice a day. Many who have left the home have later spoken to the sisters in appreciation of this prayer for them. (# 67)

The outstanding feature in the seniors' department is the oratory, a room about twenty by thirty feet with small portable pew benches. A beautiful statue of our Blessed Mother surmounts an altar of medium height. Fresh flowers are kept there, and a light burns constantly. The hangings are of a delicate blue voile and all is in perfect harmony. The seniors are at liberty to visit the oratory as they wish and to say their morning offering and their evening prayers there. There is also a grotto at the side of the hill in the back of the playground. The grotto is very attractively arranged and is within sight of any point on the playground. (# 79)

i. *Retreats.* Institutions that have an annual retreat for the children feel that it is more than worth while. Ordinarily it lasts about three days. The following are some suggestions from three of the institutions.

The annual retreat is given on the last three days of Holy Week. (# 123)

The retreat was formerly given at the beginning of the school year, but the sisters felt that the sudden shift from so much freedom in the summer to the retreat program was not so good. Consequently, last year they tried beginning the retreat some time after school had started and this plan was found much more successful. (# 67)

In the annual retreat, lasting from Thursday morning until noon of Saturday, one general idea carried out is making everything in the retreat as different as possible from religious exercises as they are ordinarily carried out at other times of the year. During the retreat no sister, except one in the rear

of the chapel, is present at the exercises. There are a good many sermons and exercises, but in all cases a strict twenty-minute maximum time-limit is put for the boys' stay in the chapel at any one time. All of the boys receive Communion together on Sunday morning following the close of the retreat at Saturday noon. The boys observe silence quite strictly, in fact rigidly, except from four to five o'clock on Thursday and Friday afternoons when a game of baseball is played by the two best teams in the institution under the team names, the 'Terribles' and the 'Horribles'. The boys take to the retreat very well. Brevity and contrast are key principles. It is felt that the retreat is extremely valuable. (# 66)

Either during the retreat or at other times during the year, it would be well, where possible, to have a couple of talks by a priest who has worked with children after they have left the institution.

j. *Lenten Sacrifices.* It is well to encourage the children to make some personal sacrifices for the season of Lent. Experience has proven that the children take readily to this salutary custom, giving up candy or cake or ice-cream or some other favorite delicacy or else doubling devotions in the way of daily Mass, saying the Stations, reciting the rosary or following some other practice. The children should be left entirely free to make the choice of their own sacrifices or devotions. While they should be encouraged, not too much should be said to them either by way of praise or censure. It is well to encourage them to make these extra Lenten efforts from a high and unselfish motive, as unselfish sacrifices for Him who sacrificed life for us on the cross.

k. *Sunday Observance.* In our institutions, it is the custom, and a very commendable one, to recognize that Sundays and holy-days of obligation are set aside for playing as well as for praying. God Himself has established these two ends, and the Church has consistently upheld them. Due emphasis should be put upon the holiness of the day. Unnecessary house work should be avoided. The children should be dressed, if not in their best, at least in something different from everyday wear. It is not an uncommon custom for girls to wear black veils in chapel on weekdays and white veils on Sundays. While, however, the holiness of the day should be emphasized, on the other hand any type of innocent recreation

should be encouraged, even though it should step over the line into the noisy and boisterous. At one institution visited, the present writer witnessed on Sunday night a match game of basketball between the institution team and a team from one of the parishes. This is the Catholic spirit. Sunday is a day for re-creation,—re-creation of both soul and body.

1. *Religious Societies.* Many of our institutions have their own religious societies for the boys and girls. These societies fall into two major classes, devotional and missionary. Sister Helena has written: "Sodalities should be an important factor in an institution. They must be alive, have regular meetings, election of officers, special outings for sodalists, socials on feast days, suspensions of members for misconduct and restoring of membership on improvement in behavior. If the sodalities are made attractive in the institution, the children on leaving will seek admittance into the church sodalities." (*Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 327.)

The societies and sodalities are used for various purposes in the various institutions. In some cases good behavior is a requirement for admission, while in other cases all the children belong. In one institution studied, the Children of Mary has an aspirants group with a probation period of six months for those desiring to join the society. In another, children from the outside belong to the society. In larger institutions, it is common to have two or more sodalities according to the age and sex of the children, each sodality having its own badges, banners, colors and similar insignia.

A good deal of attention has been given, and with most encouraging success, to building up units of the Association of the Holy Childhood, of the Catholic Students Mission Crusade, and of similar organizations for the promotion of interest in and contributions to missions. The members of the unit should preferably choose for themselves who shall be the beneficiary of their mission offerings and prayers. The following are three illustrations:

The children are encouraged to take interest in the missionary crusades. They are given missionary magazines to read and are much interested in the motion pictures of missionaries and mission work. (# 72)

School children in the institution belong to the Association of

the Holy Childhood whose object is to collect money to save pagan children. Each room has a chart on which the children indicate the amount of their contributed pennies. They select the type of child whom they wish to help with their pennies. (# 88)

In the institution store a jar stands on the counter. When the customers come in with a nickel for five 'all day suckers' or the like, they drop a penny or two into the jar marked 'Holy Childhood'. (# 55)

The boys and girls have contests among themselves in the different grades to raise funds for the missions. They thus learn by actual practice the duty of helping others more needy than themselves. (# 108)

The children raised \$25.00 among themselves for the missions last year. (# 97, an Indian school)

C. RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

Religious education includes both instruction in religious truth and training in religious habits. Of the two, training in habits may and usually must consume the major time and efforts of the institutional educator. But that instruction in the truths of religion is also a paramount task needs hardly be emphasized. He Who is the Way and the Life is also the Truth. Without the truth, there is neither going nor living. Adequate religious instruction is all the more imperative in the institution, to which so many of our children come without a knowledge of even the bare fundamentals of their religion, and in which so many stay so short a time.

An attempt to cover even the rudiments of the broad subject of religious instruction would require a volume to itself. Moreover, the treatment of content and methods of religious instruction, as of instruction in secular branches, falls outside the scope of the present manual. The content and methods of religious instruction have to be determined in accordance with the pedagogical traditions of the respective orders, with the local diocesan requirements, and with general educational principles. Institutions interested in current developments in religious instruction, in detailed practical suggestions as to methods, and in the best recent Catholic literature of the subject, may be referred to Rev. John K. Sharp's *Aims and*

Methods in Teaching Religion (Benziger, 1929), as a good reference work and as a starting-point for further study.

In the present very short and very fragmentary section, we shall merely make note of a few scattered suggestions that particularly concern child-caring institutions, and shall give a few plans that were found during the field study to be working successfully.

"Above all the forming of a correct conscience in a child is what tells for the future. Making trifling breaches of order appear as serious sins for the sake of discipline is a great wrong. When the child finds out after leaving the institution that these things are not sins, then he or she concludes that nothing is sinful and goes to the other extreme" (Sr. Helena, *Cath. Char. Rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 327); or else, as one comment puts it, "loses faith in his or her former instructors' teaching" (# 326).

Things should not be magnified. Children should not be led to believe that their little misdoings are enormous misdemeanors. It must be made clear to the children that while a misdeed is a misdeed, nevertheless it takes a great deal to make a mortal sin. One consequence of undue magnifying is that when a child leaves the institution and finds out that these trifling things are either not sins at all or else at most very slight imperfections, he is apt to be more or less at sea as to what is really sinful and what is not, and so many easily fall a victim to evil suggestion. (# 55)

Even the very smallest children are brought to the chapel, are shown the crib, pictures and statues, and the stations, are instructed in simple prayers, and are taught to look upon God as a Friend Who is with them constantly. In general, the children are instructed in all the details of their faith, very often quite informally. The chaplain very frequently takes the details of the chapel itself as a basis of instruction, familiarizing the children with everything in the chapel, with the altar, with the use of the priest's vestments, etc. In religious instruction, emphasis is placed on meaning rather than wording. Emphasis is not upon learning by rote, but each child is taught to understand the meaning. Religion is made interesting and pleasant, its beauties are fostered, and the children regard it as part of everyday life. (# 88)

In each class-room there is a statue of the Blessed Virgin. Fresh flowers are placed by the children to whom this special chore is assigned and by whom it is considered a particular honor. (# 39)

Each class has its own special devotion, so that a boy who would pass through the eight grades would leave well-grounded in the devotional life of the Church, and would know, love, and practice these devotions in the measure they have been made attractive. The class devotions are: Kindergarten, Infant Jesus; first grade, Guardian Angel; second, Passion; third and special, St. Joseph; fourth, Poor Souls; fifth, Sacred Heart; sixth, St. Aloysius; seventh and eighth, Blessed Virgin Mary and Rosary. (# 66)

In view of the rapid turnover in most institutions, shifts in these devotions according to month or season, instead of according to class, may achieve the same ends even more satisfactorily, where such turnover prevails.

The following plan, found in only one institution, has been particularly successful and with slight adaptations would no doubt prove equally successful elsewhere.

An outstanding event is the annual Catechism Bee. This is not a school or classroom project. The preparation for it and for the tests themselves are held entirely outside of the school curriculum and of school time. All or practically all of the boys take part in it voluntarily. It is held in the athletic lull between the basketball and baseball seasons. It has two purposes; first, to occupy leisure time; and second, to help the boys to get such knowledge as comes through a word-for-word memorizing of the Catechism. It is realized that such memorizing is not the essential, but it is also thought that, in spite of its many limitations, the memorizing does help the boys get a clear idea of the fundamentals of faith. The procedure is as follows:

The Bee is divided into first, second, and third trials. The first trial is on the first twelve lessons of the Baltimore Catechism. All the boys line up after class in the long school corridor. The chaplain asks the questions; the answers must be given absolutely word for word. If even a single word

is wrong, the answer is counted wrong and the boy is counted out of the Bee. The prize for the winning boy is one dollar. The second trial is carried out just like the first, and is on the first twenty-four lessons. The prize is a little larger.

Finally comes the third trial on the whole Catechism with three prizes: a two-and-a-half-dollar gold piece for the boy himself, a special trophy cup which rests for the following year on the mantel of the cottage to which the boy belongs, and a picture for his classroom. Two such trophy cups are awarded in the institution, one for the Spelling Bee and one for the Catechism Bee, the latter being a much larger and more pretentious cup. The name of the winning boy in the third trial is engraved on the back of the cup. The cup remains in the cottage throughout the year. The cottage is very proud of the cup and tries to keep it. Rivalry is quite keen, and this rivalry is stimulated by general talk among the boys and between the boys and the staff. In addition, the cottage mothers encourage the boys to make good, and each mother will often stay up late coaching her own boys before the Bee. In general, the interest in the Catechism Bee is almost as keen, though not quite as noisy, as is interest in the league series and athletic contests. (# 66)

The institution fully realizes that mere memorizing of catechism is very far indeed from being an ideal method of learning the truths of religion. But even mere memorizing has some values. Effort spent in memorizing involves almost automatically a considerable amount of attention to and understanding of meaning. A good deal of this knowledge of meaning will stick. Moreover, the cottage mothers can take occasion, while coaching the boys for the Bee, to see that they get the meaning as well as the words. Furthermore, given the special conditions of child-caring homes,—rapid turnover, high proportion of uninstructed, and so forth,—such an extra-curricular contest cannot fail to help out in the task of intensive religious teaching.

A further point to which exception is taken in some comments is the motivation. The institution likewise recognizes that this is not the ideal one. Possibly a substitute motivation that would be equally successful might be worked out. At any rate, the present one does get results, and, so far as it goes, can hardly be called

positively harmful. While the motivation, particularly the cash prize, is not ideal, account has to be taken of the fact that children themselves are not ideal, but real. Compromise with principle is always taboo. Compromise with reality is an everyday pedagogical necessity. Half a loaf is better than no bread at all. While the offering of money prizes is ordinarily unwise, it may not be objectionable in exceptional cases like the present. Institutions, however, that take a more rigorous view of this somewhat controversial question may substitute other awards, such as the group awards of cup and picture mentioned in the excerpt that has been given.

It is further suggested by one superior (#91) that team competition might be an alternative to individual competition. This suggestion is in line with competitive methods and principles that have gotten excellent results in the field of play and athletics. Perhaps, too, the same superior suggests, the Bee could be worked out on the basis of knowledge of meaning instead of memory of words. Both suggestions would be well worth trying out experimentally.

D. SUMMARY AND GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Leading Principles. We may sum up the three basic principles that run through the present chapter as follows:

1. The child should be trained to the practice of his religious duties by volition and attraction, rather than by compulsion;
2. While freedom is eminently desirable, under the system of even maximum freedom alert but kindly watchfulness on the part of those who have responsibility for the children is imperatively demanded;
3. In religious training, individualization of the child is as important as, or even more important than, it is in other phases of child training, particularly in a child-caring home.

Personality and Technique. While more attention has been given in the present chapter to technique than to personality, the reason is that technique lends itself more readily to detailed discussion. Personality is probably responsible for from two-thirds to three-fourths of the good results gotten in religious training; technique, only for the remaining third or fourth. Of the two, personality is by far the more important. The best methods will

inevitably end in failure unless carried out by a staff among whom religious spirit and personality are of high order. On the other hand, the most desirable type of personality among the staff may and will lose much of its potential efficacy unless good methods and technique prevail.

Teamwork. It goes without saying that both in the religious instruction and in the broader religious education and training of the children, cooperation and teamwork on the part of the chaplain, the superior, the sisters, and the social worker, are of extreme importance. This subject is dealt with in greater detail in the chapter on "Moral Training". But a number of examples and opportunities for such teamwork have been touched upon in the present chapter.

Two questions closely related to or included in that of teamwork are: What share should the chaplain take in the religious training of the children? Should one of the staff be specifically detailed to have charge of religious training?

The duties and position of the chaplain differ much from institution to institution. He may be director or superintendent as well as chaplain, or he may merely have charge in full or in part of the spiritual welfare of the children. He may be resident and on full time, or non-resident and on part time. The Conference has been urged to define more clearly the exact relationship that should exist between the chaplain and the institution. In view, however, of the greatly varying local conditions, such a definition does not seem feasible. All that can be recommended as a general principle applying to our institutions as such, is that, whatever the local condition may be, most cordial cooperation with and from the other members of the staff be given, and clear demarcation of duties and responsibilities be determined. One excellent custom may be mentioned briefly in passing.

Every child on entrance is presented individually to the chaplain. (# 67)

All things considered, it seems advisable, as is done in some institutions, to appoint one sister to have general charge of the religious and moral care of the children. She should be free to devote her whole time, thought, and energy to planning and supervising

this all-important phase of the institutional program. If, as we are more and more recognizing, recreation, health, or other phases of the program are important enough to justify the detailing therefor of one staff member on full time who is especially well trained and equipped for the work, there seems to be no good reason why religious and moral training should not have an equal claim to consideration. As, however, in other phases of the program,—or even more so,—greatest care must be taken lest the individual members of the staff who are in intimate daily and hourly contact with the individual children abate the least iota of their personal responsibility for and interest in the religious training of their charges. The religious supervisor's task is primarily that of helping the staff members to do better their own daily task of individual religious training. She assists them. She does not supersede them.

REFERENCES

Literature on the religious training,—as distinct from instruction,—of the child in the institution is meager in quantity. Our best source seems to be the symposium in the *Catholic Charities Review*, Nov. 1928, xii, 324-29, by Sr. Rose de Lima, of the College of St. Elizabeth, Convent Station, N. J., Sr. Helena, then of St. Elizabeth's Orphanage, New Orleans, and Sister M. Deegan, of St. Anthony's Orphanage, Toledo, O. Most of us in the United States are not familiar with the very interesting and successful methods of religious training used by the Salesians of Don Bosco: for details, see pamphlets, *Preventive system in education* and *Salesian system of education* (Salesian institute, 148 Main St., New Rochelle, New York).

The literature of religious instruction is fairly abundant. Bibliographies on the various phases of the problem are easily accessible in works like that of Father Sharp, referred to in the text of the chapter. Attention may be called to his or others' treatment of pedagogical devices, such as projects and problems; chalk talks; dramatization; use of posters, pictures, motion pictures and slides; modeling in sand and clay; object teaching; paper folding, etc. Scores of splendid practical suggestions along these lines may be found in a recent work: M. G. McMunigle, *Art education through religion*, books 1-8 (Mentzer Bush and Co., New York, 1930), which may be recommended most cordially for use and adaptation in our institutions as an important auxiliary in religious instruction.

CHAPTER II

MORAL TRAINING

We cannot hope in a single short chapter to treat adequately the whole complex field of moral training. It will not be possible to do more than touch upon and emphasize some of the high points. We shall first deal with some leading principles in moral training, and shall later work out their application to selected types of desirable or undesirable moral habits. Large segments of the field of moral training are treated in the chapters on Religious Education and Mental Health. In the present chapter attention is confined chiefly to training in love of neighbor.

A. PRINCIPLES OF MORAL TRAINING

Probably the most important key principle in moral training is: *To build up desirable moral habits or to cure undesirable ones, it is imperative to treat the factors underlying the habits instead of treating merely the symptoms.*

I. FACTORS UNDERLYING MORAL BEHAVIOR

Back of any habit in a given child may lie one or more of a score of factors that have led to the formation of the habit. A few examples may serve to illustrate the point.

Some of the more common factors in or causes of *uncharity in speech* are the following: subnormal bodily vigor or poor health conditions resulting from loss of sleep, from undernourishment or malnutrition, or from lack of physical exercise; a craving for approval and prestige that finds its outlet in uncharity of speech as camouflaged bragging; superiority feelings leading to contempt for or criticism of others looked upon as inferior; envy or inferiority feelings seeking compensation by the subtle but obvious method of reducing others to one's own level; antipathies due to physical, mental, emotional or other defects.

Some of the more common factors that lead to the use of *profanity* are the following: grouchiness as a result of overfatigue or ill health; the desire to obtain status with and approval of chums

or gangs; compensation through the use of profanity for failure in achievement along normal lines recognized by companions; sheer force of example given at home or elsewhere and followed more or less blindly; maladroitness in the use of strong but not profane language; lack of resourcefulness in ready repartee.

Some of the more common factors or influences that may be responsible for *sloth or laziness* in a particular child are the following. Among the *physical* causes may be: Imperfect sensation, due, for instance, to short-sightedness or slight deafness or developed as the after-effect of any one of numerous types of recent or earlier injuries or diseases; fatigue states, due, for instance, to overwork or overplay, to malnutrition resulting from undereating or over-eating, from vitamin deficiencies, or from other causes; the after-effect of infections; endocrine disturbances. Some of the *intellectual* causes may be: Dull-normal or border-line mentality; disability in some one class-room subject giving rise to a sense of the futility of trying to catch up; class retardation due perhaps to illness with its after-effect of over-fatigability, in turn engendering the feeling that the struggle to make good is hopeless, this feeling in turn resulting in willed inactivity resorted to as a means of relieving the tension; just a plain lack of interest in the particular studies in the curriculum or in the assigned household or other tasks. Finally laziness may be due to one or more of myriad possible forms of *emotional* instability. A sensitive child, wounded by ridicule or censure, may become discouraged and listless. The nagged child may have grown callous both to the nagging and to criticism and have abandoned as hopeless his normal desire for the good opinion of others. Occasional or repeated failure in one or other activity may lead to a sense of inferiority which in turn may easily lead to flight from reality and compensation in day-dreaming. Strangeness in new surroundings, bewilderment, homesickness, over-timidity, shyness, lack of encouragement and many similar conditions may lead to inaction, listlessness, and "laziness". Often, too, there appears a certain "slowing up", for a while at least, at adolescence or thereabout.

Some of the very numerous and often very subtle and complicated factors that result in *thieving and dishonesty* in children are the following: Poor physical condition, due to any one of a number

of possible causes, may result in failure or retardation, which may lead to truancy, which in turn may easily lead to thievery and amateur burglarizing in company with the child's gang. An inferiority feeling resulting from subnormal mentality may lead to the matching of wits with the world that is often the motive back of the sneakthief's activity. A boy may steal for the very obvious motive of desire for pleasures which cannot be obtained or bought legitimately, owing to his lack of money or other means. Stealing may be a means of breaking in upon the humdrum of life to get thrills and adventure. Again it may be resorted to in order to acquire prestige with the gang or under pressure from the gang, or to give treats to companions. A child may steal from those who have more and of whom he is jealous, or he may steal as a result of grudge and revenge feelings against those with whom he is unpopular. The stealing may be a substitute outlet for some bad sex habit or for some conflict or other.

Again stealing may be occasioned by environmental factors. The child may have been taught to steal or at least not taught not to steal. He may have been accustomed to a certain amount of communism in property in his own home and have merely transferred this attitude to property belonging to those not of his own home circle. Bickering, quarreling and nagging at home may have led the child to seek outside companionship in thieving gangs or sets. Lack of play facilities and of wholesome play outlets may have led him to substitute unwholesome play activities, including thievery.

The foregoing four habits of unkindness in speech, profanity, laziness, and dishonesty have been chosen as more or less random illustrations. Moreover, no attempt has been made to give an exhaustive list of the factors. The religious factors are treated in chapter I. It has merely been desired to call attention to the fact that in any case of either a desirable or an undesirable habit on the part of the given child, the factors that underlie the habit may be any one or more of a great many possible ones.

These factors are in themselves so varied and complex and in the individual life are so intertwined and blended that the comprehensive and logical classification of them is a very difficult task, if not a hopeless one, in the present state of our knowledge. We may, however, for convenience' sake, give the following very much simplified general classification:

Factors Underlying Conduct

Environmental

Subjective

Physical

Intellectual

Affective

By environmental factors are meant conditions outside, so to speak, of the individual. By subjective factors are meant conditions within the individual. These conditions within the individual are partly inherited and partly acquired. The four illustrations which have been given furnish numerous examples of the various types of factors that underlie moral conduct. They likewise exemplify the intricate ways in which these various types of factors blend into and intertwine with one another in the individual life. Further illustrations will be given in the latter part of the present chapter in the section dealing with particular moral habits. Only a word of emphasis is necessary at this point on the importance both of *accepted ideals of conduct* and of *Divine Grace*, as molders of moral behavior and character.

Good habits as well as bad habits are in a certain very true sense symptoms. Just as any given physical symptom, such, for instance, as a headache or a fever, may be the result of any one or more of many possible factors or underlying causes, so any given symptom in the moral order, such, for example, as charity or uncharity, reverence or profanity, may be occasioned by any one or more of many possible factors or underlying causes. The chief difference is that the factors in physical health and disease work automatically; whereas the factors in moral and spiritual health and disease are largely under the control of free will, and so are more commonly incentives to or occasions of right or wrong behavior rather than causes proper.

A physician called in to see a sick person inquires carefully regarding the symptoms of the person's malady. If he finds, for instance, the man suffering from headache and fever, he does not prescribe at once for such headache and fever. He studies the patient further to determine what is the cause of these symptoms, and then directs his treatment to cure, not merely the symptoms, but

the cause itself. A like technique is called for in diagnosing and treating moral diseases and in building up moral health.

The Catholic educator, whether in home, in school, or in institution, may and should heartily welcome the attention that has, during the last couple of decades, been given to the treatment of factors in moral training. He may and should welcome the flood of light that has been shed upon these factors as well as the valuable new additions to methods of treatment that have come from the intensive study given to the subject in clinic, in laboratory, and elsewhere. For, after all, treatment of factors rather than of symptoms only has been the traditional Catholic method of moral training.

The terminology of modern child-training technique differs, it is true, from the terminology of traditional Catholic child-training, but the underlying concepts are the same. The environmental factors correspond to what spiritual writers call "the world"; the subjective factors to what spiritual writers call "the flesh". Again delinquency is to a considerable extent synonymous with sin,—sin implying, in addition, the relationship to God's will and other notes. The environmental factors of delinquency we call the occasions of sin. The subjective factors in delinquency correspond in the main to what we call the capital sins. The kinship or identity between some of these subjective factors and some of the capital sins is obvious at first glance. For instance, laziness with its many underlying factors is sloth. The sex drive is lust. The superiority feeling, self-assertiveness, and the craving for recognition and status are largely identical with the capital sin of pride, while the inferiority feeling is largely identical with the capital sin of envy.

There is however one factor in moral conduct, *the most important one of all*, which is unfortunately given little attention in the contemporary movement for better methods of moral training. This is the factor of *Divine Grace*. Our recent studies, particularly from the field of delinquency, have given us an enormous mass of new and valuable information upon the influences that make for desirable moral conduct, upon the capital sins, upon the occasions of sin as they operate under our actual American conditions, and upon methods of treating and preventing misconduct and of promoting desirable conduct. We should utilize this newer knowledge

to the full, blending it with our traditional Catholic analyses and methods that have grown out of long centuries of intimate experience in moral training. But we must at the same time be careful to keep chief emphasis upon the supreme importance of supernatural motives and of Divine Grace.

2. DISCOVERY AND DIAGNOSIS OF FACTORS

a. *In General.* The greater part of our modern study of factors underlying moral behavior has been concerned with problems of delinquency. Hence we have fuller and more explicit information upon the factors underlying undesirable moral behavior than upon those underlying desirable moral behavior. The same is true in a measure as regards our Catholic literature on the subject. We have a very extensive literature on the capital sins and the occasions of sin. We have less, it would seem, on the capital virtues, and on the influences, apart from prayer and the Sacraments, that make for desirable behavior.

Notwithstanding this emphasis upon the corrective side of moral training, it is relatively easy to determine from the study of sin and delinquency what are the factors that make for desirable habits. If, for example, poor health is a frequent factor in delinquency, it is obvious that good health is, in many respects at least, a factor that may make the acquisition of desirable habits easier. If leisure-time idleness may lead to misconduct, wholesome and absorbing recreation may help to insure good conduct. If lack of religious instruction and neglect of the means of grace pave the way to sin, adequate religious instruction and generous use of the means of grace are factors promoting the practice of virtue.

In reality, every single minor and major phase of the institutional program and régime contributes to or detracts from the successful moral training of the children in the institution. *High standards in religious care, in discipline and freedom, in mental and physical health, in the recreational, educational, vocational and cultural programs, in social policies, in plant and equipment, in personnel and administration, all make easier the task of the institutional moral educator.* We have adverted in another chapter to the intimate bearing of religious care, of recreation and of health upon the maintenance of good discipline. The same holds true of moral

training proper. Every item, however insignificant, in the program and régime of the institution, affects for weal or woe, in greater or lesser measure, the moral training given by the institution. Enumerating and expanding upon these broader features that contribute to moral training in the institution or detract therefrom, would necessitate enumerating and expanding practically every point touched upon in the present Manual.

b. *The Individual Child.* As regards the individual child and his moral training, a very special problem presents itself. Each child in the institution differs in character traits from every other child. Each child who enters the institution brings with him a complex set of habits already formed or in process of formation,—a character already molded by innumerable hereditary and acquired influences, by his previous environment as well as by his individual physical, intellectual and temperamental make-up. To build up desirable habits in a given child and to prevent or to correct undesirable ones, intensive study of him is imperative.

As regards the *necessity* of studying the individual child in order to train him morally, there is unanimity of view among our institutions. The following are illustrative expressions of this view:

As each child is admitted, the sister or the one in charge must begin at once to study the child in order to understand its particular likes and dislikes, its nature and disposition. If these are understood, much may be accomplished in helping a child to form right habits. (# 12)

We feel that great emphasis should be placed upon the necessity of patient, individual study of each moral and mental health case and upon the advisability of seeking the advice and aid of those specially trained in handling such problems. (# 119)

The further problem however arises: What precise *methods* are best for investigating and diagnosing the actual factors of conduct at work in the individual child? Many conduct problems are simple and of minor moment; others are complex and graver. In some cases the factors are obvious or lie close to the surface; in other cases their discovery calls for much experience, insight and knowledge. We may therefore deal briefly but separately, first, with

methods of investigation in simple or more obvious conduct problems, and, secondly, with such methods in complex or more puzzling ones.

(1) *Simple Conduct Problems.* Probably the first approach in the institution to the solution of the simpler types of conduct problems is, as in discipline problems, a serious but kindly and sympathetic talk with the child over the matter. It is true that an occasional child will not unseal his lips, but most children will talk quite freely of their conduct problems if they are approached kindly and sympathetically, particularly by one who already has their confidence and good will. The child should be encouraged to speak freely. He should know that there is no mere desire to pry into his life or to intrude on his personal privacy. Unless the child is extremely young or of decidedly subnormal mentality, it is well to tell him frankly that an effort is being made to get at the cause of his difficulty in order to help him overcome it. It must be made equally clear that no punishment will follow from what he reveals regarding himself and that his self-revelation will itself be kept as a matter of strict confidence. In such a heart-to-heart talk it is neither necessary nor advisable to gloss over or to minimize matters if the child's misbehavior has been of a serious nature. The fact should be looked squarely in the face and discussed sensibly, quietly, and dispassionately. Even if the self-revelation is a little "shocking", no expression either of shock or of revulsion should be manifested.

More commonly, the child himself, like a patient who is physically ill, is unable to analyse the forces at work in his own life and to diagnose his own moral malady. This part of the task falls on the chaplain or the sister who is handling the child's problem and who is the child's guide and confidant. The adult guide in the case must, without jumping at conclusions, frequently read much between the lines. In simpler cases the real factors,—environmental, physical, mental and emotional,—soon become apparent, or some of the outstanding factors do. In other cases, moral diagnosis, like medical diagnosis, is much more complicated, much less easy, and sometimes very baffling. What should be the procedure in these more difficult cases?

(2) *Complex Conduct Problems.* In complex cases of misbehavior more or less systematic exploration and investigation of the

numerous possible environmental and subjective factors become necessary. The aim of such investigation is to find the factor or the factors in the given case responsible for the misconduct, and incidentally to learn the resources in the child's environment and personality that can be made use of in applying remedial treatment. The factors responsible for the condition may be subjective ones,—the “flesh”,—that will be discovered through the study of the child's heredity or family history, of his early developmental history, of his physical and mental characteristics, of his interests and general habits. These factors may be environmental,—“the world”,—that have to be sought in the child's home and neighborhood background and conditions, in his present companionship and leisure-time activities, and in his adjustment or maladjustment to school and out-of-school tasks. The following case is given in illustration of a complex conduct problem.

Frank, aged thirteen, was referred by a child-caring institution to the child-placing agency. He had just been returned to the institution by his foster-parents, with whom he and his younger sister had been placed for adoption two years before. The foster-parents were willing and anxious to keep his sister and to adopt her legally, but they stated that they had reached the end of their resources with the boy.

They reported that Frank seemed intelligent enough and stood well in his classes at school, but that he was sullen and quarrelsome with adults and children, bullied and tormented the latter when they were younger and smaller than himself, and was exceedingly cruel to animals. This last trait had manifested itself a short time before, when he was taken to spend a few weeks on a farm. While there he abused the larger animals at every opportunity, and strangled chickens, pigeons, cats and rabbits, seemingly for the sheer pleasure of inflicting pain. In the week he was returned to the institution he had threatened his foster-mother with a gun and on the same day had thrown an inkwell at his teacher in the classroom.

When interviewed, Frank proved to be a sullen, suspicious boy, answering questions only in monosyllables and showing no interest in games or sports or in any plans for himself. He was

quite fair to his foster-parents, said they had been good to him, and was glad his sister was going to remain with them. He denied all the stories reported about himself, stating that the real reason why people did not like him was because he so often had nightmares and screamed in his sleep. He displayed his first nervousness when discussing this last matter, and stated that he often dreamed of being shot by someone or of shooting someone. When he asked if he had ever considered shooting anyone, he blushed and said that he had meant, not to shoot his foster-mother, but only to frighten her. He added that he liked her, and so forth, and then suddenly withdrew into his usual shell of reserve and refused to discuss the question further.

A medical examination showed that Frank was a well-nourished healthy boy of good habits, but was evidently suffering from some kind of mental tension which was evidencing itself in his nightmares. He was referred to a children's psychiatric clinic, where he was studied for some time.

The clinic, going back into his history, found that Frank and his sister were half-orphans, that the mother had died when Frank was about seven years old, that the father had deserted, that there were no relatives at all on the mother's side, and that the father's relatives had been unwilling, and, in some cases, unable, to do anything for the children. So they were both placed in the orphanage. The institution had shown great discrimination in the choice of the foster-parents, who were well-poised, cultivated persons. Frank's misconduct had started within six months after leaving the institution, where he had given little trouble during his four years' stay.

The psychiatrist felt that there was a connection between the boy's conduct problems and the nightmare woven around a shooting episode. It was finally disclosed that Frank was obsessed with the desire "to grow up", to find his father and to shoot him. In the deepest recesses of his mind the boy had a passionate devotion to the mother's memory. She stood to him for all the love and security he had known when he was small. He had a bitter hatred of his father, whom he remem-

bered as having abused his mother when he was intoxicated. His father had also always been cruel to the children. One day, in an outburst of bitterness, the boy told the psychiatrist: "My father left me and my sister like dogs on the street". Investigation showed that the father was intoxicated on the day of his wife's funeral and had insisted on taking the children away with him from the cemetery. Later on the morning of the funeral, evidently after walking about with the children for some time, the father abandoned them on the street. The police later picked them up, tired, hungry and forlorn, and took them to the institution. The father had never been seen nor heard from again.

In the course of the years, it was taken for granted that Frank had no recollection of all that had happened. There was no relative or friend of his mother to talk to him. His father's people had never liked her and had never visited the children at the institution. Frank had evidently not been talked to much about the fact that the foster-parents who took him and his sister wanted eventually to adopt them legally. It was when he heard this that his misbehavior began. He was outraged at the thought of calling anyone else "mother", and it was later shown by investigation that his most outrageous conduct took place when the talk of legal adoption came up from time to time. Not knowing what else to do, he had abandoned himself to unhappy brooding and to hatred of everyone, and this hatred had circled about all that he remembered of his father. He was keenly conscious of the disgraceful behavior of his father in deserting his sister and himself. He resented his proposed adoption, not only because of the memory of his mother, but also because in his own way his sense of justice was outraged at being adopted when he had a living father.

The psychiatrist advised, among other things, that the boy's self-respect be built up in as many ways as possible, that he be given responsibilities, and that an effort be made to find the father. An earnest search, lasting over a period of months, finally located the father in a distant State. He was reported as working steadily and as living alone in a boarding house.

He had become crippled as the result of an accident and could earn only enough to keep himself from day to day.

This information was given to Frank. The father's crippled condition and inability to earn money were stressed as a possible reason for not having communicated with the children during the years since he had abandoned them, and the fact was faced that if he thought about his past conduct he must be ashamed and must feel that perhaps his children would never want to see him.

Frank was appealed to, with care to keep the scales of justice balanced and with emphasis upon the consideration that he and only he could do the magnanimous thing. The response was surprising. His bitterness melted away like magic, under the consciousness that he knew where his father was and could speak of him as other children whom he knew spoke of their fathers. His first ambition was to have a letter come to him from his father. When it finally came, Frank was proud of it beyond measure. Evidently it was a sign to him of being like other children, of having a certain place where he belonged in society. After this, work with him was comparatively easy. He is a boy of intelligence, is making his way easily through high school, and is much imbued with the welcome thought that his father as he grows older and less able to find work, must in time to come depend more and more upon what this boy will be able to do for him. Letters and small gifts find their way between the father and the boy, and the latter is saving money enough to visit his father at some not-too-distant day.

There is little question, that if a thorough study of Frank's case had not been made, he would have ended in a reformatory because of his grave misconduct. At heart he was not a "bad" boy. He was a thirteen-year-old youngster, filled with unhappy and bewildering memories, without standing in his own child's world, and fighting back against what he considered injustice, the world against him and he in turn against the only world he knew.

(a) *Sources of Information.* Among the chief sources from which information may be obtained regarding the child are his social

case record, the results of his physical and mental examinations, and his scholastic and behavior records. Attention may be called in passing to the difference between psychological tests of intelligence and psychiatric examinations. In cases of misconduct the latter are usually much more important than the former. Much light may be shed upon the causes of his misconduct by a talk with the child himself, with his teacher or school principal, with his parents or other relatives, and with the social worker or workers familiar with the child's case prior to his entrance into the institution or during his residence therein. Information available on the child's environment, history and personality prior to his entrance into the institution often gives clues leading to the discovery of the factors that lie back of his misconduct.

(b) *Records and Conferences.* If the institution is keeping, as it should, social case histories, and physical, mental, educational and personality records of the children, consultation with these histories and records will often shed much light on the problem. Liberal routine use of such records, particularly in more difficult cases, is becoming increasingly common in our institutions. The following are some illustrations:

In endeavoring to discover the causes of undesirable behavior, study of the social history record of the child, supplemented by conferences with the guardian or relatives responsible for the child, has proven of great help in solving problems. (# 39)

The case histories and physical and mental records are available to members of the staff, following conferences with the school superior or with the superior of the institution. (# 81)

Serious conduct problems are referred to the director, the supervisor and the social worker, full use being made, in the investigation, of social, medical, mental and educational records. (# 88)

So far as possible, the members of the staff become familiar with the results of the physical and mental examinations of the children and are guided by these results in their training of the child. (# 42)

Frequent conferences between the sisters and social worker occur, and the individual members of the staff obtain a fair

knowledge of the child's background. In addition, when the child's relatives visit the institution the sisters talk with the relatives concerning the child's history and a good deal of light is thereby shed on the particular child's conduct problems and their underlying factors. (# 71)

There is a systematic exchange of information between the superintendent, the superior, and the social workers from the Catholic Welfare Bureau. The superior transmits all needed information to the members of the staff. A synopsis of the case history is kept on file in the institution, the general history being kept at the office of the Catholic Welfare Bureau. (# 42, # 207)

The question raised in the preceding paragraphs is one on which differences of view prevail in our institutions. The point at issue may be formulated as follows: Should the members of the staff be in possession of all the known facts bearing upon the child, his family and his background?

There appears to be general agreement that under ideal conditions the members of the staff who have the responsibility of handling the children's problems should be in possession of all the pertinent facts. Actual policies must, however, take serious account of actual conditions.

The conviction is widespread among our institutions that too intimate acquaintance with the case history and background of the child is apt, under actual conditions, to prejudice some of the staff members against him. It is also held that the child more commonly does better if he feels that those immediately in charge of him are not aware of his past misdemeanors or of home conditions of which he may be ashamed. Besides, actual case records may be insufficient, or may even be misleading to a staff member untrained in their use and interpretation. There is danger of a too mechanical use of them and of lack of skill and experience in interpreting them.

In view of the foregoing considerations, the following practical recommendations may be made, as a temporary compromise between the ideal and the actual. At least the superintendent or superior or both should have full case records and should be in possession of all facts pertaining to the child, his family, and his background. If local conditions make it advisable, then the superintendent or sup-

erior does well to transmit to the members of the staff as much information as is needful, or to permit and encourage free access to and use of the records by the staff. Where local conditions make this procedure inadvisable prudent but energetic measures need to be taken to change the conditions along the following chief lines.

First, it should be a fixed policy to use every available means to break down and scotch any tendency toward prejudice on the part of the staff members. The superior in one institution takes the stand that she would not tolerate on her staff any member who would be prejudiced against the child on account of his social history. If she discovers such prejudice, she arranges for the transfer of the staff member as one having no place in an institution for dependents. Such transfers may not be feasible in all institutions, but it is certainly possible to take other and less radical measures to soften and to eliminate the prejudice.

Secondly, increased emphasis needs to be put upon the fact that staff members are under moral and professional obligations of confidence as regards information they possess on the past and on the home conditions of the child.

Thirdly, fuller information upon the individual children, and fuller and less mechanical case records are desirable. It is easy to crowd into case records a mass of relatively useless information.

Fourthly, more training should be given staff members, both in the general principles and methods of character-building and in the interpretation of records and of other information about the individual children.

This whole question illustrates well the urgent need, more and more keenly felt and recognized by our institutions, for careful selection and training of the members of the staff. Not everyone has the temperament, personality and other necessary qualifications for work in child-caring homes. Training for the task is just as important and desirable as is training for the teaching and nursing professions. Suggestions as to how this training may be given are made later in the chapter on Administration and Finance.

Before leaving the subject under discussion, one final point may be touched upon. While ordinarily it is better that the child should not know that his past misdemeanors or the home conditions of which he is ashamed are known to the staff member, there are occasional exceptions to the rule.

One finds cases in which children compensate badly for delinquent parents or for poor home conditions and in which it would be better to make the child aware of one's knowledge of such factors in his background and *to help him to face such facts squarely*. Children observed not to speak about parents and home are often badly troubled with feelings of inferiority relative to their parents and home. (# 356)

In most institutions there is considerable contact between the members of the staff and the parents and relatives of the children. During these visits the sisters learn a great deal about the family conditions and the history of the child himself.

(c) *Case Work*. If adequate case histories and physical and other records are not available, then, in any complex case of misbehavior, detailed case study of the child should be a matter of routine. Such study and systematic exploration of the possible factors include physical and mental examinations and personality analysis. Very often, though not always, such intensive case study will give a sufficiently clear working knowledge of the real factors that are responsible for the misconduct.

(d) *Use of Clinic and Psychiatrist*. Where institutions are so situated that they can utilize the services of a psychiatrist or child guidance clinic, they ought to avail themselves of this advantage, particularly for their more serious conduct problems. Many of our institutions are making good use of these facilities, as illustrated in the following excerpts:

When a serious problem presents itself in a child, the child is sent to the local child guidance clinic, and recommendations for treatment, based on the diagnosis made, are carried out. (# 14)

Serious conduct problems and serious retardation cases are taken up with the child guidance clinic. The boy is sent to the clinic. In complicated cases he may remain there some days under observation and occasionally may stay even as long as a month. (# 66)

The state psychiatrist is called in and consulted on the more serious problem children. (# 71)

The institution has on its staff a professional endocrinologist, who studies behavior as well, frequently recommends both

mental and physical treatment, and often helps to work out behavior difficulties. His recommendations are explained to the staff who are guided thereby in handling the child's behavior problems. (# 88)

The counsel given and recommendations made by some psychiatrists and clinics are at times not in harmony with Catholic principles of ethics or of child-training. Institutions can usually obtain information upon such local conditions by consultation with the local Catholic Charities Office or with local Catholic social workers. The time is, we hope, not far distant when the services of Catholic psychiatrists and clinics will be available for all our institutions. Where conditions permit, the staff of the institution should include a psychiatrist, or a psychiatric social worker trained to carry out the suggestions of the psychiatrist and the clinic. The beginnings of such a desirable development are evidenced in the last of the excerpts just quoted, and in the following one.

A traveling clinic, composed of a psychiatrist, a psychologist, and a psychiatric social worker, is maintained by the Catholic Charities of New York. Problem children, retardants, and children about to be discharged are given a complete psychiatric examination. The whole school is given group psychological tests. The tests give clues to proper classroom grading and reveal needs for coaching in special subjects. The recommendations of the psychiatrist include an estimate of the value of academic training for the child, suggestions for manual training, recommendations for social adjustment within the institution, and, in the case of the child about to be discharged, recommendations as to the type of work for which he appears best fitted. A copy of the report of such examination is sent to the Catholic Guardian Society, the New York after-care agency. This traveling clinic, as is clear, meets many needs besides that for guidance in conduct problems. (# 357)

Lay versus Professional Investigation and Diagnosis. It is obvious that the investigation and diagnosis of moral maladies, like the investigation and diagnosis of physical maladies, may be, in a given case, very easy or very difficult. The causes may be easily discovered in a few moments' talk with the child, or their discovery may demand highly technical professional knowledge and training.

In the academic field it is taken for granted that the average efficient teacher in the grade school should have a fair knowledge of the rudiments of hygiene and of the symptoms of more common maladies. In addition she should have sufficient knowledge of symptoms to know when to send the child to the school nurse or physician when the malady is of a more serious nature. In like manner, the members of an institution staff should be expected to have such knowledge of the common factors and symptoms of moral maladies as to enable them to diagnose the ordinary cases, together with such knowledge of symptoms as will help them to decide when the child is in need of expert professional investigation, diagnosis and treatment. This illustrates again the urgent need of training for child-caring work. A simple course in child psychology and child-training would go far toward helping staff members both to handle the common simpler problems and to recognize the symptoms of graver ones.

In serious cases there should be no hesitation in appealing to professional help and guidance. On the other hand, it would be unfortunate indeed if the regular members of the staff should make it a practice to pass on to social worker, psychiatrist, superior or director the simpler conduct problems. They themselves should be able to handle these. They should appeal for professional assistance only in cases that require technical investigation, diagnosis, and treatment.

In all cases the avenues of ready access of child to staff member, to superior, and to chaplain should be left wide open. Children should be free to come without restriction or formality to talk over their behavior problems with those who have charge of them, just as they would be free to do so with their own parents.

Teamwork. In conduct problems, too, it is important that there be mutual understanding, uniformity of procedure and teamwork on the part of those handling the particular child's problem. One of the greatest sources of misconduct on the part of the children at home is lack of teamwork and divergence of view as to methods on the part of parents in the training of their children. It can be equally disastrous in an institution.

In the case of problem children particularly, consultation between the two or more sisters who have to do with the child

is the normal procedure. They work out a plan together and carry it through consistently. This method has worked well. (# 39, # 117, # 124)

Personality Charts. Our institutions are not in agreement on the use of personality charts. The excerpts that follow represent the conflicting views and some of the reasons therefor.

The superintendent does not believe in the use of personality charts because he thinks that they are too apt to be filled out from subjective judgment that may easily lead to errors and to prejudice against the child. (# 72)

If such estimates of character traits are made, they must obviously be based on actual facts. Thus, if a child is rated as dishonest there should be undeniable *instances* of dishonesty on his part to substantiate the rating. But who is there who can always judge accurately whether or not the child's action comes clearly within the circle of dishonesty? Or is it always possible to make sure whether a child has told a lie or merely an untruth? Such ratings are, moreover, apt to be influenced by subjective factors within the person doing the rating. Again, the ratings or estimates need to be made in accordance with changes in character and attitude that are incidental to the child's growth and development. Can we count on all these and other factors being taken into consideration by those who make out or use personality charts? (# 339)

The foregoing considerations cannot be brushed lightly aside. Yet the following terse comment of one superintendent carries weight:

The foregoing objections would militate against any sort of diagnosis or treatment on the part of members of the staff. (# 88)

Those in favor of the personality charts believe that the charts serve at least as an incentive to staff members to give greater attention to the study and understanding of the character traits of the individual children. This view is expressed in the following excerpt.

The group-mothers and teachers made out in January, 1928, an adapted form of the "Moore Personality Estimate" for

each child. These were summarized by a social worker in the Catholic Charities office. It is the institution's plan that in the future a personality estimate will be obtained for each new child from someone, such as his teacher, who has known him well, and then, after the child has been in the institution three or four months, another estimate will be made, this time by his group-mother and teacher. The use of this personality chart is so recent that it is not easy to estimate its final value, but even this first use of it has helped to sharpen observation on the part of group-mothers and teachers and to give them a better understanding of the children under their charge as well as to furnish valuable information to the social worker. (# 88)

We have not perhaps enough objective evidence on which to form a final conclusion as to the advisability or inadvisability of the use of the personality chart. In view of the differences in opinion and in experience, further trial of the plan, cautiously and wisely carried out, may be recommended. In such experimentation, it seems imperative that the personality rating under each item for each child should be made only upon concrete evidence given by specific incidents, happenings, or behavior on the part of the child. In case of doubt, it is better not to rate at all. It is probably advisable, too, that the child should not see his own personality chart. On this point there is difference of procedure, depending to a certain extent on the differences in the items in the charts. One thing abundantly clear is that there should be no public display of the charts and that they should be kept confidential.

3. TREATMENT OF FACTORS

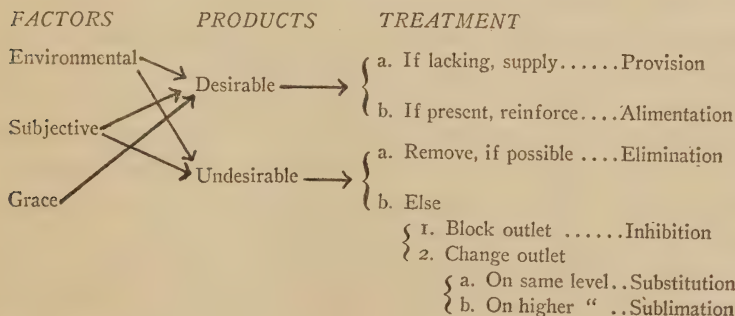
The child is constantly being pushed and pulled hither and thither by numerous environmental and subjective factors. He is not, as a rule, being forced into this or that type of behavior, for free will can largely hold in leash the driving power of these factors. Nevertheless in actual experience, the child's character is largely the product of these influences within him and without him. This fact is a commonplace of Catholic moral education.

The subjective and environmental factors easily lead to either desirable or undesirable conduct, to the formation of either desirable or undesirable habits. These factors are not merely passive or

static things. They are dynamic factors in the child's life. And they are dynamic forces that impel the child toward behavior that is desirable or undesirable, good or bad, virtuous or vicious. Physical hunger may lead a child to habits of industry or of theft. The craving for approval may lead him to hard study or to profanity or untruthfulness. This is merely putting in other words the traditional Catholic teaching that example may be good or bad, that the "passions" are forces that impel the individual towards virtuous or sinful behavior.

Our basic strategy in treatment may therefore be summed up in the practical principle: Reinforce the constructive factors in the child's personality and environment to overcome or to minimize the destructive factors.

So far as the factors making for *desirable* conduct are concerned,—if such factors are lacking in the child's life, supply them, and if they are already present, strengthen and reinforce them. So far as the factors making for *undesirable* habits are concerned, if possible, remove and eliminate such factors. If it is not possible to eliminate the factors, either block and dam their outlet through the process of inhibition, or give them a different outlet on the same or some neutral level through substitution or on a higher level by the process of sublimation. The foregoing technique will be a little clearer perhaps from the following diagram:



Our first impulse in the case of an undesirable habit is ordinarily toward inhibition as a means of treatment and cure. But first impulses are not always the best. "We seem to get better results", one superior (# 13) writes, "when we say, 'Let us try this', than

when we say, 'Don't do that' ". Certainly inhibition as expressed by "don'ts" and "shall nots" is frequently necessary. On the other hand, great and important possibilities in the treatment of undesirable habits are opened up by the other three processes suggested: elimination, sublimation and, particularly, substitution. These general principles will be illustrated, and, it is hoped, made a little clearer in the following section of the present chapter which deals with some specific types of conduct and habit.

B. MORAL TRAINING IN SELECTED HABITS

In a short half-chapter it is impossible to cover the whole range of desirable and undesirable moral habits, or for that matter to cover thoroughly and adequately even any one habit. We shall select certain outstanding habits and shall suggest the manner of treatment of the more common factors underlying each habit. We shall start with the four habits touched upon at the beginning of the present chapter and shall then add short treatments on three or four other common types of behavior and misbehavior.

I. CHARITY AND UNCHARITY

Charity, in the sense in which we are here using the word, includes not only charity in thought, judgment and speech, but also cheerfulness, good humor, friendliness, and kindred habits and attitudes. One of the most common factors leading to uncharity is a subnormal health condition. The obvious procedure is to take every means to eliminate this factor and to build up better health conditions in the child. If, on the other hand, uncharity is an outlet for an otherwise blocked craving for recognition and standing, a study should be made of the child's possibilities for achievement along neutral or wholesome lines, these possibilities should be encouraged and developed, and due recognition should be given for successful achievement. A similar procedure is advisable, if envy, a sense of inferiority or kindred feeling lie at the root of the uncharity. In the majority of cases, especially if the child is not too young, it is just as well to give him a glimpse of what is taking place in his own personality. And, of course, it is always understood that prayer and the Sacraments as well as the distinctly religious motives should be brought to bear upon the child's life both for the building up of charity and for the breaking down of uncharity.

2. REVERENCE AND PROFANITY

We are not concerned here with determining the distinction between sinful irreverence to God's name and strong language which, while undesirable, may not in itself be sinful. This distinction may be found in any advanced textbook of religion. We are concerned more with the pedagogical aspects of profanity. It may be merely remarked in passing that, while the use of such words as "damn" usually does not in itself constitute a sin, on the other hand the child who uses this word to-day is very apt to put God's name in front of it tomorrow. This latter expression is certainly disrespectful to God's name although it does not necessarily or ordinarily imply a mortal sin.

Profanity, like uncharity, may be, and is, sometimes traceable to poor health conditions and to the craving for standing, recognition or approval. The same procedure is called for as in dealing with uncharity, namely, the elimination of the poor health conditions and the substitution of normal and wholesome outlets for the desire to obtain recognition. Frequently boys resort to profanity from sheer force of example given at home or elsewhere, and in this case a little clear instruction on the importance of clean speech and on the wrongfulness of profanity will often solve the situation. In all cases the religious motives of reverence and love of God will, of course, need to be stressed.

3. INDUSTRY AND LAZINESS

Laziness has many forms and many causes. It is often identical with what we call indifference, listlessness and lack of interest. It may show itself in habitual tardiness, dawdling, wool-gathering, and daydreaming. Sloth is set down as one of the capital sins which leads to many types of moral misbehavior; but sloth itself is or may be the resultant of any one of many possible underlying factors.

The more common factors lying back of laziness are of a physical nature. Some of these have been enumerated in the beginning of the present chapter. An anemic or similar physical condition may be mistaken for laziness. In most cases of pronounced laziness the first step towards cure should ordinarily be a medical examination and a study of the past medical history of the child. The remedial treatment will vary according to the results shown by such examination and study.

Not infrequently the apparent laziness is due either to subnormal mentality or to a condition bordering thereon, or else to class retardation or to failure in some one or more of the subjects taught. An intelligence test followed up by careful study of the child's school record and achievement will often give a tentative diagnosis of the cause lying back of what we call laziness. If it be found that the child is really subnormal mentally, not too much in the way of academic achievement should be expected from him. The tasks assigned him should be within his ability to accomplish. Nothing should be done to discourage him and everything possible to encourage and to stimulate him. Praise should be generously given in proportion to *effort* rather than to actual achievement. Moreover, it is frequently necessary to take energetic measures to offset or to eradicate twitting, teasing and 'razzing' on the part of the other children.

Sometimes, laziness and indifference are the result of supernormal intelligence on the part of the child. Being above normal, he quickly accomplishes the tasks assigned him and then time hangs heavy on his hands. If the intelligence tests and other criteria show the child to be gifted or supernormal, the simplest procedure is to feed him classroom tasks above the average requirements, to stimulate his interest in outside reading, to encourage him to do mental digging on his own hook, to discover his special gifts or abilities and to develop them and at the same time to see to his all-round development. The gifted child must not become a moral dwarf. This general problem of subnormal and supernormal intelligence is dealt with in a little more detail in the chapter on Mental Health.

A third major source of laziness is discouragement resulting from ridicule, censure, nagging or repeated failure. In such cases ridicule, censure and nagging should be eliminated and should give place, so far as possible, to sympathetic, but not mushy, encouragement. If past failure lies back of the laziness, self-confidence needs to be *gradually* rebuilt through the successful performance of simpler tasks. Such successful performance will, incidentally, give the child a taste of the thrill of achievement. If the laziness takes the form of wool-gathering and flight from reality, he should be helped to know what is taking place in his own life and should be stimulated definitely to face his own battles and to fight them without flinching. This point, too, will be given further treatment in

the chapter on Mental Health. We may merely add that mental health like physical health has a much more intimate bearing on moral behavior than we perhaps realized a generation ago. The enormous progress made in both physical and mental hygiene has been of inestimable assistance in enabling us to put our fingers upon some of the more prolific sources of misbehavior.

4. HONESTY AND DISHONESTY

By honesty we here mean chiefly honesty as regards property. By dishonesty we mean theft.

Poor physical conditions, the craving for status and approval, or a sense of inferiority may underlie thieving just as it may underlie uncharity and profanity, and the treatment of these factors should be along the lines suggested in dealing with uncharity and profanity.

Dishonesty may however be occasioned by any one of an almost endless number of other factors; consequently "there can be no standardized treatment for any condition that has such a variety of causes as stealing. In dealing with this problem, as with other problems concerning the conduct of children, the important factor is to determine what purpose the stealing served in the emotional life of the child and then to make an effort to help the child meet this particular emotional striving in a way satisfactory to him and acceptable to society". (Thom, *Everyday problems of the everyday child*, p. 244). The most thorough study we have of the factors and occasions of dishonesty is Healy's "Honesty", to which the reader may be referred as the standard source on the subject. Here we have space to touch upon only a few of the more common types of cases.

If a child, whether at home or in an institution, is not trained to a sense of definite individual ownership of his own toys and other belongings, we need hardly be surprised if he fails to observe such rights of ownership in others. One preventive of dishonesty, and an important one, is giving the child experience in exclusive ownership of his own belongings. In view too, of a certain degree of communism that prevails ordinarily both in homes and in child-caring institutions he should be trained to respect rigidly the property rights of the other children. Incidentally, although he should be encouraged to be generous in sharing what he has, he should be taught to maintain strictly his own property rights against invasion

on the part of other children. Usually not much teaching of this kind is necessary. Give all the children opportunity to have and to keep individual possessions and they will look after this phase of economic training themselves.

Sometimes a child will steal for the thrill of adventure. The stealing breaks in upon the humdrum, monotony and routine of everyday life. If provision be made in the general program of the institution for surprises, adventure and thrill in the way of absorbing and interesting play, games, contests, movies, outings, and so forth, the craving for excitement will often be satisfied by wholesome means instead of by thieving and other unwholesome ones.

Sometimes theft is a form of compensation for an inferiority feeling. The child is merely matching his childish wits against the adult world or against his mates, and establishing his status in his own mind by outwitting others. In such cases measures should be taken to help the child establish his status by the development of such normal skills and abilities as he possesses.

Stealing may be and very commonly is the direct result of the desire for pleasures which the child has not the means of purchasing or providing for himself. One means of treating such a condition is to help the child to earn a little money by honest work or to obtain such pleasures through other legitimate means. The earning plans so common in our institutions no doubt do a splendid preventive work in this respect.

A child sometimes steals simply because he does not know any better, or because he has been taught to steal by relatives or gangs, or because he has acquired the habit through sheer force of example. The first step to be taken in such cases is to correct the child's false notions regarding property and to instruct him regarding the moral wrong and sinfulness of theft.

As in the matter of other habits, so in the matter of honesty, it is extremely important to tie up the whole ideal of honesty to the child's sense of religious duty and to the distinctly religious motives, and to make generous use of the means of grace.

If a child is discovered in a theft, he should not be subjected to too much humiliation, particularly public humiliation. Nevertheless as much in the way of restitution should be required of him as circumstances permit. A theft should not be lightly condoned.

Restitution, *gradual* and not so drastic as to deprive the child of *all* his spending money, should be expected of him as a matter of course. It is very poor kindness and worse pedagogy that condone, without any obligation of restitution, theft in the child. Dishonesty should be associated in his mind with unpleasant experience. On the other hand, restitution should be interpreted to the child, less as retaliation and punishment, and more as something to be taken for granted, as a matter of course, as the just and the only thing to do. The child should never be called "a thief" or any other bad name. No word should be uttered that would lead him to believe that confidence and trust in him have been lost. On the contrary, every effort should be made to build up in the child his own sense of trustworthiness.

5. TRUTHFULNESS AND LYING

From the moral standpoint lies may be divided into malicious and non-malicious, venial and mortal, and so forth. Such divisions, however, are not our concern here. From the pedagogical standpoint it is necessary to divide lies according to the causes or factors that have been the occasions of them. Many such divisions have been worked out. One of the most satisfactory is that given by Burt in "The Young Delinquent" (pp. 361-75).

- a. The playful lie: untruths uttered more or less as make-believe, rein being given to the imagination.
- b. The lie of confusion: an untruth uttered because the youngster has just gotten mixed up somewhat in his facts, or does not express himself accurately, or does not draw a sharp enough line between the real and the fanciful. This, like the preceding, is common with very young children.
- c. The lie of vanity: conscious invention or exaggeration for the purpose of attracting attention or for acquiring prestige.
- d. The malevolent lie: an untruth resorted to out of spite, revenge, or grudge.
- e. The excusive lie: an untruth uttered to cover up wrongdoing or to evade prospective punishment.
- f. The selfish lie: an untruth used as a means for gaining profit or pleasure.
- g. The lie of loyalty and convention: an untruth uttered for the

purpose of saving a comrade or of extricating him from a predicament, or else an untruth uttered to please another or to avoid wounding another's feelings.

In addition, one occasionally meets with what is called pathological lying, that is, untruthfulness often of a rather complex, morbid or abnormal type, which may be seemingly motiveless, but which in reality is the result of factors that are ordinarily hard to identify and that may operate from the semi-conscious levels of personality.

In the case of pathological lying proper, treatment by a professional psychiatrist should be arranged for, if at all possible. In most of the other cases, the diagnosis and treatment are usually simpler.

The first thing to determine is whether or not the given untruth is merely an exceptional lapse or whether it is the symptom of a persistent habit. In the latter case particularly, it is all-important to determine what is the real motive for the untruth or for the untruthful habit. There is no single treatment for untruthfulness, just as there is no panacea for theft. The treatment should vary according to the cause lying back of the given act or habit of untruthfulness in the particular child.

Some of the measures of treatment are obvious enough, once the real cause of the lying is determined. If, for instance, the child has been guilty merely of a playful "lie", probably the best procedure is to let the child understand at once that you know that he has uttered the untruth more or less playfully, that you have understood it in that sense, and that you realize he had no intention of deceiving you. In the case of the "lie" of confusion, one way of meeting it is to help the child then and there to untangle the confusion in his own mind. In neither of these two cases,—the playful lie and the lie of confusion,—should the child be scolded, chided, or charged too heavily with moral guilt. In most cases there is no moral guilt and no real lying involved at all. On the other hand measures should be taken not to discourage reasonable play of fancy, but to help the child himself to distinguish between reality and fancy and to express his thoughts and ideas correctly.

As for lying out of vanity, encourage him to acquire status by honest effort and to despise such status as may be acquired dishonestly. The malevolent lie is in all cases more serious either in itself

or in its consequences for character. Every effort needs to be made in such cases to get at and to eradicate the uncharity, spite, and revenge that are back of the lie.

As for the other three types of lying that have been enumerated, some basic counsels of treatment and prevention are the following:

- a. Expect truthfulness from the child as something that is taken for granted. Trust him and do not question his word, unless there is quite clear evidence that he has been or is guilty of untruth.
- b. Give the most scrupulous example to the child both in telling the truth and in keeping promises. The slightest appearance of duplicity or of so-called harmless social lying, should be eschewed by those to whose keeping the child's training in truthfulness is entrusted.
- c. Even if a child has been caught in a deliberate lie, it is not well to give him to understand that his word will henceforth not be trusted.
- d. It is not well to *make* the child confess his own faults, particularly in public, nor, for that matter, ordinarily in private. Still less should the confession be demanded under threat of punishment. In many cases this is demanding the heroic if not the superhuman from the youngster.
- e. Do not accept tale-bearing in any but the most rare, exceptional and grave situations, such as may arise in an institution, say, once in five or ten years.
- f. If a child tells on himself quite frankly, this should not involve escape from all punishment for his misdeed, but ordinarily such punishment as is meted out after a frank confession should be tempered to the limit possible under the circumstances.
- g. Those in charge of children must be most conscientious in setting an example of utmost truthfulness.

Throughout any system of treatment either for the building up of loyalty to truth or for the correction of the habit of untruthfulness, there should be consistent emphasis on religious motives and considerations. God is the God of Truth, and our Lord Himself died for loyalty to truth. Christ was lenient towards many whose

delinquency was of a grave nature, but He reserved some of His sternest condemnations for the current sham, deception, hypocrisy and lying of His day.

6. CHASTITY AND UNCHASTITY

a. *Factors.* Some of the more common causes of temptation against chastity in the child are the following. His play group, and sometimes his home conditions, may have led him into evil sex habits. Occasionally, too, earlier experiences, sometimes of a grave nature, may have left a lasting impression on him or have given rise to serious mental conflicts. Idling and day-dreaming, due to lack of play stimuli or of play facilities, or to the physical or other conditions that lie back of what we have previously called laziness, are common factors in the development of immorality both of imagination and of deed.

In younger children, physical irritation, uncleanness, or other bodily conditions may lead to undesirable habits, as may also the frequently quite early discovery by the child or infant of the possibilities of procuring pleasurable sensation from its own person. With adolescent or older children, either over-fatigue or under-exercise may lead to temptation. Ignorance, in the form either of merely unscientific misinformation or of misinformation that is directly productive of temptation, is a very common contributing factor in the formation of wrong attitudes as well as of immoral habits.

An occasion that leads not uncommonly to solitary sin is a general uneasiness or discontent in the child's life. This discontentment may be due to the blocking of cravings for affection or for recognition, to monotony and routine, to lack of wholesome adventure and thrill, or to other causes. The child, being unhappy and discontented, seeks compensation in solitary sex practices. There are, of course, many other causes that may underlie a given case of wrong sex conduct on the part of a child, but the foregoing are among the more common ones.

b. *Treatment.* Both the building up of right attitudes and habits and the cure and prevention of wrong attitudes and habits demand close attention to and treatment of the environmental and subjective factors that are normally operative. Lest we be misunderstood, we again call attention to the fact that emphasis is here

being put upon the factors not to explain away or to minimize guilt or responsibility, but to point the way to treatment.

The general principles that should determine methods of treatment have been outlined by the Holy See in two important recent documents.

The first of these documents is the Encyclical Letter of His Holiness, Pope Pius XI, on the Christian Education of Youth, December 31, 1929.

“ Another very grave danger is that naturalism which nowadays invades the field of education in that most delicate matter of purity of morals. Far too common is the error of those who with dangerous assurance and under an ugly term propagate a so-called sex-education, falsely imagining they can forearm youths against the dangers of sensuality by means purely natural, such as a foolhardy initiation and precautionary instruction for all indiscriminately, even in public; and, worse still, by exposing them at an early age to the occasions, in order to accustom them, so it is argued, and as it were to harden them against such dangers.

“ Such persons grievously err in refusing to recognize the in-born weakness of human nature, and the law of which the Apostle speaks (Rom. 7:23) fighting against the law of the mind; and also in ignoring the experience of facts, from which it is clear that, particularly in young people, evil practices are the effect not so much of ignorance of intellect as of weakness of a will exposed to dangerous occasions, and unsupported by the means of grace.

“ In this extremely delicate matter, if, all things considered, some private instruction is found necessary and opportune, from those who hold from God the commission to teach and who have the grace of state, every precaution must be taken ”.

The second document, a decision given out March 21, 1931 by the Congregation of the Holy Office and approved by His Holiness, confirms and enjoins the above traditional Catholic method of treatment as set down in the Encyclical and adds:

“ Above all, there must be carefully instilled into the young of

both sexes full, firm and uninterrupted religious education. There must be inspired in them esteem, desire and love of the angelic virtue. There must be highly recommended to them assiduity in prayer and in the frequentation of the Sacraments of Penance and of the Blessed Eucharist. They must be incited to cultivate filial devotion to the Blessed Virgin, mother of holy purity, and to entrust themselves fully to her protection. They must be taught to avoid carefully dangerous reading, obscene spectacles, association with immoral persons, and every occasion of sin."

The basic principles and methods of treatment here stand out in sharp relief.

- (1) The dominant factors leading to chastity or unchastity are not knowledge or ignorance of intellect, but strength or weakness of will.
- (2) Hence our main concern is not the imparting of information, but the reinforcement of the will [chiefly by the processes we have called provision and alimentation, *supra* p. 85] and avoidance of the occasions of sin [chiefly by the processes we have called elimination, inhibition, substitution, and sublimation].
- (3) The will must be strengthened by emphasis upon supernatural motives and by recourse to the means of grace. To put major or sole reliance upon natural motives and means is to court disaster.
- (4) Such private instruction as may be found necessary and opportune should be discreet, reserved, and guarded; should be tempered in accordance with the age of the child and with his individual needs; and should be given by those who hold from God the commission to teach and who have the grace of state.

The following pages represent an endeavor to apply these four general principles to the particular conditions and problems that exist in our American Catholic child-caring institutions.

Methods for the positive upbuilding of virtue and for the strengthening of the will through emphasis upon the supernatural motives and upon the means of grace have been dealt with in extenso

in the preceding chapter on Religious Care and Training. All that has there been said applies, and with special force, to reliance on the supernatural motives and means in training to chastity. The treatment of this all-important and supreme method of approach will therefore not need to be repeated here in detail. We shall instead devote the major part of our attention, in the pages that follow, to the important problem of the occasions of sin and to the much less important but more delicate problem of instruction. We desire to emphasize, if further emphasis be necessary, that the amount of space here given to the problem of instruction is not an index of the relative importance of instruction as compared with avoidance of occasions. The somewhat longer discussion given to instruction in chastity is necessitated by the complexity and delicacy of the problem. We shall first take up the question of instruction; afterwards, the methods of dealing with the subjective factors in and environmental occasions of unchastity.

(1) *Instruction in Purity.* (a) *Need of Instruction.* That children need instruction on the angelic virtue, no Catholic authority or educator has ever questioned. The only points under discussion,—but they are important ones,—are: What should be the content of the instruction? By whom and to whom shall it be given? How and when should it be given?

(b) *By Whom.* The members of the staff of a child-caring institution stand to the child in the place of his parents. Consequently the parental duty of training and instruction devolves upon the staff members. The staff members are, in the sense of the Encyclical as cited above, among “those who hold from God the commission to teach and who have the grace of state”.

By far the more common custom, and certainly the simpler and more satisfactory one in most cases, is for the regular staff members or group mothers to answer personally such questions as may be asked by the children under their charge and to see that these children are properly instructed. In some cases, however, and in some matters, the cooperation of superior, chaplain, nurse, or physician is advisable.

Ordinarily the girls are instructed individually by the sister in charge of the girls but we may, if occasion demands, refer the child to the institution nurse for further advice. (# 76)

Group mothers, the nurse in charge of the health department, the staff endocrinologist and the chaplain, all have a part in instructing the individual child in matters relating to purity and bodily care. (# 88)

Regarding the girls, pertinent instruction is given them by the superior herself. There are several sisters in the institution who in a particular manner have the confidence of the girls, who speak to them very honestly, and to whom the girls go quite freely. (# 68, # 117)

It is extremely important to keep open the avenues by which the child may have free access to instruction, counsel and guidance. If the child's questions are met by a rebuff, by evasion, or by untruth he is very apt to seek—and get—misinformation elsewhere, even within institution walls, and, what is probably much more serious, he will ordinarily have learned from the treatment of his question not to seek wholesome adult information or guidance in the future. Thus a barrier is erected between the child and his moral guides in one of the most critical moral problems of his life.

(c) *How*. An excellent approach to these questions asked by the younger children is illustrated in the following excerpt:

The problem of answering questions asked by children has been met and cared for successfully through a quiet talk with the individual child. This creates confidence on the part of the child and makes her feel free to come to the sister to talk over matters of this kind. The sister assures the child that she is interested in her problem and that she is endeavoring to take the place of her own mother, and she encourages her to return to her should she need further instruction and guidance. (# 64, # 117)

Such information as is given should be imparted clearly, seriously, and kindly. The tone of voice is of importance. It should border on the matter-of-fact but be tempered with a touch of reverence. There should be no trace of nervousness, embarrassment, or tenseness. Due reserve is called for, but there should be no hush of mystery.

(d) *To Whom*. Individual instruction and individual answering of such questions as may be asked are ordinarily the better procedure. It is by such individual instruction that parents who ful-

fill their duty in this respect deal with their children and the sister or group mother stands in place of the parent. In some matters, individual instruction is not only advisable but imperative. On the other hand, some instruction on purity, given with all due reserve, can be imparted to groups, particularly to small groups.

In religious instructions to the 6th, 7th and 8th grades the chaplain speaks very plainly to the children. The sister superior speaks even more plainly to the girls individually or in very small groups. (# 100)

We have found that giving heart-to-heart talks to very small groups of about the same age does much good. (# 13)

The older girls have their own special small oratory. The sister finds that talking to the girls while in the oratory has a good effect. The religious atmosphere tends to prevent the girls from making light of such instruction among themselves. The sister also lets the girls know that she is there to answer any question that any individual girls might wish to ask. This has helped to bring about a feeling of confidence and to open up an avenue of ready access for counsel and consultation. (# 79)

(e) *When.* It is a very common custom in our institutions to give the children, particularly the older ones, a fuller instruction on the eve of their discharge from the institution. This is valuable, but is, of course, not sufficient. It is recognized today that purity like any other virtue is not helped much by a single talk or exhortation. The task is a long one. Instruction cannot adequately be given merely in one or two large doses. It should be linked up with the whole moral education of the child, and should be imparted gradually, consistently, frequently, and unobtrusively, as occasion demands, and this over all the years of childhood training.

(f) *What.* It need hardly be stated that teaching should be graded to the age of the children and, so far as possible, to the individual child's needs. One can just as easily err by instructing too much as by instructing too little. Certainly, reasonable frankness is called for, but it is likewise important to safeguard the sense of reserve. Instruction includes provision of a decent terminology for use by the child. Such a terminology makes both for candidness and for reserve.

With very small children, very little in the way of direct information is ordinarily called for. The common inquiry as to where babies come from may often be answered simply by saying that God sends them from Heaven. With the somewhat more inquisitive child, a little more in the way of explanation may be given as to its human origin in so far as the mother is concerned. It is well to follow this with, say, the simple narrative of the Babe of Bethlehem and the visit of Mary to Elizabeth. Naturally nothing at all should be said to very small children regarding the social diseases. It is sufficient to train them to care in the use of towels and drinking cups and in other simple measures of protection against contagious disease in general.

As the child reaches or approaches adolescence, which for the American boy ranges between thirteen and fifteen and for the girl about a year earlier, the bodily changes that come at this time should be explained to boys and girls respectively. The explanation should ordinarily precede the event. About the same time, both boys and girls should learn a little more definitely the purposes of moral defence served by reserve, courtesy, deference, and convention, in association between the sexes. Some understanding, too, should be given of the hazard involved in liberties and in pick-up acquaintances, as well as of the gravity of social diseases both for the boy and for the girl. An older girl, and for that matter, an older boy, about to graduate from an institution into independent status outside thereof, needs some knowledge of such moral hazards as are connected with dance-halls and amusement parks, the automobile, strange rooming houses, irresponsible employment bureaus, and plausible and sympathetic strangers, male or female, met on trains or elsewhere.

The foregoing content of instruction is very much summarized, the headings only being suggested. Further details may be found in the approved literature of the subject.

After all, determining in detail just precisely what should be told the child, is, in the last analysis, a matter of ordinary common sense and good judgment plus spiritual discernment and the grace of God. No iron rules can be laid down, nor can any exact form of words be suggested. Child differs from child in his needs, and group from group. On the other hand those in charge of children should be expected to have a reasonably fair grasp of the facts. This

is to a certain extent an administrative problem involving the relations of the superior of the institution to the staff, and a training problem that is being recognized more and more in novitiates, as illustrated in the two following excerpts.

The sister superior in her staff meetings talks over with the staff the ways and means of dealing with more common sex problems. The sisters while in the novitiate receive definite training and information on the whole subject as well as instruction in methods of how to deal with children therein. (# 67)

Proper handling of the whole problem of purity and sex is an integral part of the training received by the sisters in their novitiate. (# 88)

A good deal of space has here been given to the question of instruction because the subject is a little complicated, but we wish to emphasize again that instruction is only a small fraction of the whole process of education in chastity. Moreover, such education cannot be isolated from the rest of moral education. We have to recall, too, that the cluster of impulses,—passion, love and parental trends,—that are based upon the physical fact of sex, may, like other instincts or driving forces, lead either to the loftiest heights of sacrifice, devotion and affection as in normal home-making, or may lead to the lowest depths of selfishness and sin. As in general moral training, so too in training to purity, the key strategy is: Supply and reinforce the constructive factors in the child's environment and personality to combat the destructive ones. Much of the process of offsetting the destructive ones is accomplished by wise prevention and substitution. That of building up the constructive ones is largely a matter of ideals and spiritual motives.

(2) *Physical Factors.* In dealing with the question of *instruction*, the purpose has been to suggest a remedy and a preventive for the *factor of ignorance* that enters into so many faults against chastity. A few suggestions may now be given as regards *other factors, physical and psychical.*

As regards the physical factors, particularly in the life of the very young child, the following are basic counsels. The child should be trained to regular hours of sleep. He should normally be

tired before he goes to bed and should rise promptly. He ought not to be sent to bed in the daytime as a punishment. His bed should be fairly hard, and without too many blankets. He should be trained to sleep on his side rather than on his back. His clothing should be loose, non-irritating, comfortable, and not too warm. Bodily cleanliness should be insisted upon. The physician should be consulted during the child's early months or years to determine whether there be necessity for simple surgical treatment. The reasons back of the above suggestions are clear enough to all experienced in child-training.

(3) *Auto-erotic Habits.* The foregoing suggestions are along the lines of prevention of auto-erotic habits on the part of the very young child. Occasional cases of such habits will occur among children of preschool or of school age. Some suggestions for dealing with these problems are contained in the following excerpts.

The staff are taught never to give the child any indication of being shocked, nor to call the preschool child's act a sin, if they find a child indulging, but rather to provide other outlets as a means of cure and prevention. (# 11)

In the baby house where the children live until they are six years old, undesirable habits are corrected more by distracting their attention. If the habit persists, the doctor's attention is called to the condition. If the doctor finds physical causes responsible, proper medical measures are taken. (# 14)

In general, regarding the treatment of auto-erotic habits among very small children, the following suggestions may be made. Do not be shocked or show any sign of kindred emotion. Endeavor to distract the child rather than fix his attention on the habit. If the method of diversion does not work out successfully, the aid of the physician should be elicited. Keep the child busy with play and other activities. Sometimes it helps to give the child a doll or toy animal to hold after he is tucked in at night. Punishment or other more serious measures should not ordinarily be appealed to except as a last resort.

If such habits appear in the older child, say between seven and fifteen, he should be spoken to kindly and gently but very frankly. To inflict severe punishment upon him, to tell him he will lose his

mind, or to tell him that everybody will know, may easily do more harm than good to such a child, and besides, so far as the latter two warnings are concerned, it would be telling him what is not so. It is highly important in all such cases to retain the boy's or the girl's confidence, to encourage him or her through avoidance of the occasions of sin and through liberal use of the means of grace to fight the battle through and to win. In all cases it is important to encourage easy access for sympathetic guidance and counsel through his problem.

(4) *Psychical Factors.* So far as the non-physical factors in sex sin are concerned, liberal use should be made of the methods of inhibition, substitution and alimentionation mentioned in the first section of the present chapter.

(a) *Inhibition.* To live clean lives, we must think clean thoughts. The child should be taught the technique and the practice of control of thought and imagination from earliest years. The technique of thought-control is in itself simple enough. It may be summarily expressed as follows: Keep busy, manually and mentally occupied; if nevertheless thoughts come unbidden and unwanted, say a short earnest prayer and then turn your attention quickly to your games or books or toys or hobbies or whatever else you are interested in.

(b) *Substitution.* The method of substitution is, in the main, simple. Keep the child busy, busy at anything short of sin, and he will be less apt to think of sex mischief. Idleness, moping and day-dreaming notoriously speed up the machinery of the devil's workshop and notably increase its sex output. Keep the boy and girl busy at work or at play. Perhaps the play solution is the simpler, but healthy active work is also good. Incidentally, if the boy and girl have plenty of interesting, absorbing and exciting play, routine is broken in upon, the thrill of adventure and surprise is gotten legitimately, and thus other common causes of sex temptation are automatically avoided.

(c) *Alimentionation.* As for the process of alimentionation, especially the building up of high ideals of purity in the child's mind and life through the reinforcement of religious motives and through the use of the means of Divine Grace, the Sacraments of Confession and Holy Communion, prayer in general, and devotion to our Blessed

Mother in particular,—a good deal has been said in the chapter on Religious Care and some further suggestions will be made a little later in the present chapter.

(5) *A Special Problem.* Among any large number of children, either within an institution or outside its walls, we are apt to meet from time to time cases of quite grave and persistent immorality. Not infrequently such cases serve as foci that spread immoral practices among large numbers of other children. If any child in the institution happens to be of this type, then in the interest of the other children it is usually necessary to have the child transferred, unless a quick solution can be found that will check his bad influence on the others.

Where, to protect the other children, the child must be transferred, two important counsels are suggested. First, the transfer should be carried out as quietly as possible, lest too deep and lasting an impression be left on the other children. Secondly, it is neither just nor charitable merely to put the child out and set him adrift. To do so would be like turning loose a child who is a typhoid carrier or who has scarlet fever. The child who is a moral menace to children in the institution will probably be a moral menace to other children outside the institution, unless intensive effort be made to cure him or to protect these other children. It is ordinarily the institution's grave duty of conscience to transfer such a child to a place where adequate treatment will be given him or to see that he is committed to the care of those who can both help him and safeguard the other children with whom he will come in contact.

In grave cases where there is no serious danger of moral contagion, it is extremely important to discover what is the real root of the child's immoral behavior. Usually very careful case work is advisable, including physical, psychological, and psychiatric examination. The services of the psychiatrist may help in both diagnosis and treatment. Long-time treatment may be necessary under the most careful and kindly but firm individual coaching, guidance, and encouragement. The supernatural means of grace should be utilized to the full. Any of the environmental or subjective factors that contribute to the habit or block its cure should be eliminated or substituted for so far as is possible. If it is clear that the child is not a source of moral contagion for other children in the institution, the

institution should be expected to keep the child and do all in its power to set the child on the right way again. Just expelling him does not usually help him return to the straight and narrow path.

7. SOME SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING HABITS IN GENERAL

a. *Teamwork.* The average modern city child living at home suffers from some grave handicaps. One of the gravest is the fact that in nine cases out of ten, if not ninety-nine out of a hundred, the three major agencies training the child,—home, church, and school,—are largely divorced one from the other, or, at least, rarely get together to plan cooperatively for the child's moral education. Teacher and parent try, each independently, to train the child, but rarely these twain meet. Beginnings of teamwork are observable in parent-teacher associations, but only the first beginnings have been made toward adequate and effective teamwork. Cooperation between home and church is perhaps a little closer, but such cooperation as exists leaves much to be desired.

In the child-caring home on the other hand, church, school, and substitute home are, or can be, very closely coordinated. Unified teamwork on the part of these agencies is made easily possible where chaplain, teacher, and house mother plan jointly and work in harmony. Moreover, the important educative possibilities of leisure-time activities can be utilized constructively in building wholesome habits. The institution should capitalize to the utmost this advantage which it possesses, through frequent consultation, conference, and staff meetings. Thus joint planning may be done both for the general moral training of all the children and for remedial, preventive and constructive treatment of the individual child.

b. *Precept and Practice.* In our ordinary religious and moral education within the school, we explain to children what worship means and tell them how to pray and then follow this up with actual *practice* in worship and prayer within the very classroom or in connection with school activities. While, however, we give them a knowledge of the precepts of the moral law, the class-room and school life is to no small extent so limited in variety and, from the child's standpoint, so artificial, that relatively little opportunity is provided for actual practice in moral living. Freer methods of teaching and increasing recognition of extra-curricular activities are,

it is true, providing somewhat fuller opportunities for moral practice, but, even so, these opportunities are quite restricted.

The institution, on the other hand, is admirably situated for giving the child adequate moral practice, particularly if there be little undue repression and much freedom and variety in the children's activities within the institution. The child in the institution is, it is true, shut off from many life situations which help train the child living at home. But this institutional limitation is largely offset by the quite ample opportunities afforded group mothers and other members of the staff to help the child to *practice* outside the class-room and chapel the moral lessons *taught* in class and chapel.

c. *Rules of the Game.* There is a technique for baseball, for basketball, for any major or minor sport. There is also a technique for the game of life and life eternal. In this technique, the treatment of factors instead of symptoms only is a basic rule of the game into which the child himself should be given as much insight as is possible. He should, however, in addition, be trained to familiar knowledge and practice of several other simple but basic rules, among the more important of which are the following.

(1) *One thing at a time.* If we try to carry too many bundles we are apt to drop many or all of them. Each of us has some "pet fault" which most needs correction or some one virtue which most needs reinforcement. First, determine what your pet fault or supreme need is. As a guide in the selection of this fault or need, two questions may be asked: If I should lose my soul, what in all probability would lead me to eternal loss? What is the sin I commit most consistently and most frequently? Once having selected this pet fault or supreme need, neglect, relatively speaking, other faults and needs. Center attention upon this one. Don't scatter energy over too wide a field. Select one thing and keep on its trail like a bloodhound.

(2) *Win the first fight.* A good resolution, made, for instance, at the time of Confession,—for example, to say morning prayers regularly or to avoid profanity,—will perhaps be broken almost or quite unconsciously within twenty-four hours. Do not trouble about such an unreflecting breach. But sooner or later there will come an occasion when you will keenly and consciously feel yourself being tempted to relapse and backslide. *This* is the real battle.

Win this first real fight, and success will give you a taste of the thrill of victory as well as confidence for the next fight until the desired habit becomes set.

(3) *Put a time limit on resolutions.* Make your resolutions for a day, or a week, or for a month. When you have made good for a day or week or month, renew your resolution for another similar period. Marathon resolutions,—“for life”,—are apt to get winded.

(4) *Stick to it.* Keep pegging away, notwithstanding occasional or more than occasional backsliding, until you finish the job.

Other elementary rules of habit formation will no doubt occur to any one who has had experience in child training. The point, however, we wish to emphasize is that there is a fairly simple technique, which the average child can learn and not merely learn about; that he should have this technique at his finger tips; and that he should acquire it, as he acquires the elementary rules of hygiene, by practice and actual living.

d. *The Members of the Staff.* The importance in moral training of good example is so obvious that it need not detain us. But some less obvious counsels may be touched upon lightly.

In our contact with children, we have to exercise extreme care lest unconscious or only vaguely realized personal, social, national, or other bias, handicap us in our work with them. Few, if any, of us are utterly free of these more or less unconscious and irrational “prejudices” and antipathies. They are often so subtle and hidden that the most searching and humble examination of conscience does not reveal them to us.

We of adult age have often to make allowance for the youth of our charges. With our adult standards, we sometimes fail to distinguish clearly between the child’s innocent acts which are the result of immature moral growth and judgment, and acts which are wilful and deliberate attacks on moral standards known by the child to be right. In other words, we have often to distinguish, both in judging and in training the child, between error and guilt.

A recent study (Wickman, *Children’s Behavior and Teachers’ Attitudes*) has brought out in striking clearness the tendency of school teachers to pay marked attention to types of behavior that constitute open attacks on authority and order and to overlook the docile,

shy, dreamy child who rarely "gets into trouble". Not infrequently, the shy, dreamy child develops maladjustments that constitute grave moral menaces. This tendency to escape from reality is dealt with a little more in detail in the chapter on Mental Health. The passive child often constitutes an even more difficult problem in training than does the active, aggressive child who comes more frequently in conflict with law and order.

Throughout the whole of moral training emphasis should be put upon the positive virtues with their magnetic appeal, more than upon the innumerable ways of offending against these virtues. Emphasis should be upon the positive more than upon the negative, upon virtue more than upon sin. Much of our moral instruction has been borrowed from manuals of moral theology. Such manuals are written primarily for the guidance of confessors, and so have to deal more with sins and their varieties. But moral training while not overlooking the task of making clear to the child what is sinful and what is not, should give by far the greater attention to the positive upbuilding of virtue.

C. IDEALS

In the two preceding sections of the present chapter, emphasis has purposely been put more upon the driving factors in conduct than upon tugging ideals, more upon natural factors than upon religious and supernatural ones, a little more upon curative and preventive treatment than upon directly constructive measures. This has been done primarily to keep exposition clearer and to avoid confusion. Moreover, it seems to be the more logical procedure in accordance with the fundamental Catholic principle of moral training that grace builds upon nature. This third section of the chapter is devoted to the consideration of positive ideals of moral conduct and of the place of the supernatural means and motives in upbuilding them. Inasmuch as Catholic ideals, means, and motives, are so familiar to the staffs of our institutions, no very long treatment of them is here needed. Moreover, they have been explicitly and fully dealt with in the chapter on Religious Care, for what builds up the religious spirit in the child builds up as well his ideal of behavior.

1. *Ideals as Forces.* We should cut down the occasions of sin and blunt the edge of the capital sins. We should provide and rein-

force wholesome environmental and subjective influences in the child's life. While doing these two things, however, we should not neglect the most important and decisive elements in moral training, namely, building up inner ideals and seeking Divine Grace to help live up to these ideals.

In moral education it should be a primary aim to make the child independent, so far as possible, both of his environment and of those subjective factors that may stand in the way of the attainment of high character.

In a considerable amount of our recent child-caring literature in which almost exclusive attention is given to modification of factors, one gets the impression that some of the writers consider habit and character as almost automatic products of such factors. We have, however, to repeat and to re-emphasize the difference between the factors underlying physical health and disease and the factors underlying moral health and disease. The former act more or less automatically. The latter exert profound influence but not automatically. They are largely subject to the control of free will, of freely accepted ideals, and of freedom reinforced by God's grace.

We find tendencies towards extremes. One is an almost, if not quite, exclusive reliance upon the modification and manipulation of factors underlying moral conduct with little or no regard for the decisive elements,—themselves all-important factors,—of free will, freedom of choice, and grace. The other extreme seems at times to put almost exclusive reliance upon freedom and grace, with little concern for the other contributing factors in conduct. Neither extreme system is in accordance with Catholic principles of moral education.

In the traditional Catholic emphasis upon the occasions of sin, upon the importance of example and association, upon the capital sins, the capital virtues and the passions, upon the close relationship between health of the body and health of the soul, and upon spiritual exercises like meditation, spiritual reading and the examen of conscience, we have ample evidence of the Church's concern to reduce the force of destructive factors in moral conduct and to build up the constructive factors. We may not, consistently with our own Catholic principles of moral training, be satisfied with throwing the whole burden on grace. Both in self-training and in the training of

those committed to our charge, God expects us to use our intelligence. God does not deny His grace to those who do what in them lies. But they are expected to do this or at least to make an honest attempt. The children of light are expected to be as wise in their generation as the children of this world. If by taking thought we can either reduce the occasions of sin and the power of the capital sins or reinforce the upbuilding influences within ourselves or within others, God expects us to do so.

2. *Ideals and Religion.* On the other hand, "unless the Lord build the house they labor in vain that build it". God has given us not only moral ideals and precepts, but also powerful motives for attaining them in the revealed truths of faith, and powerful means to help us live up to them in prayer, Mass, and the Sacraments. The amplest and fullest use should be made of these supernatural motives and means.

Moral ideals are of four kinds, or, to be more exact, in the individual they pass through four stages. They must be *known, admitted, accepted, and lived*. I may fail in following an ideal because I have never heard of it. Again I may have heard of it but do not admit it as a desirable ideal. Further, I may admit a given ideal as right and just and desirable, and yet for one reason or another may never have accepted it and resolved to follow it. Finally I may know, admit and accept an ideal, and still, out of weakness or on occasion of strong temptation, may fail to live up to it. If moral ideals or standards are to be real forces in a child's life, something more than knowing and admitting them is obviously necessary. They must be accepted and lived.

It is a primary function of religious care and of religious education to make high ideals of conduct known and to get these ideals admitted by the individual child or adult. But religion's function does not stop at this point. Religion provides both the motives and the means for getting ideals of conduct accepted and actually lived. Making known and getting admitted the Catholic moral ideals is a chief concern of religious and moral instruction. Once this is accomplished, the further task of religious and moral education is concerned primarily with such functioning of the religious means and motives within the child's life as will help him to accept and to live up to the supreme moral law: Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with thy whole heart and thy neighbor as thyself.

3. *Means: Natural and Supernatural.* With God it is the motive that counts most. The means taken are a minor matter. If, for instance, a person finds his ill-humor and uncharity are the result of taking too little sleep, and if, acting on that discovery, he actually takes more sleep and so gets back to normal health conditions, his procedure in taking such a natural and common-sense means is of merit in God's sight. A natural means taken for a supernatural motive becomes itself of worth before God.

In actual life the best plan in nearly all cases is to use both the natural and the supernatural means. Keep exclusively neither to the one nor to the other. Apply such intelligent treatment of factors through natural remedial means as is indicated in the circumstances. On the other hand, appeal to prayer and the Sacraments as the channels of God's grace. In the majority of cases where there is need of conquering an undesirable habit, no matter how intelligently the underlying factor or factors are diagnosed, and no matter how skillfully and resourcefully the treatment of these factors is carried out through natural means, there is need and grave need of emphasizing the supernatural motives of conduct, of appealing to the sense of duty to God, and of utilizing to the full the means of divine grace. Hence the practical principle in correcting undesirable habits or in building up desirable ones is: Use the supernatural means to the utmost, but reinforce them by ample use of the natural means.

These supernatural means are too well known to require long treatment. They are, first, of all, prayer in any and all of its accepted forms. Secondly, they are Mass and the Sacraments of Penance and the Holy Eucharist. For the great bulk of Catholics of whatever age, young or old, the best and surest road towards keeping morally straight and, when things have gone awry, towards getting morally straight again is the practice of regular and frequent Confession and Communion. In nine cases out of ten it gets the results aimed at. It succeeds even where all else fails. It is usually well, too, to have a regular confessor. This is looked after more or less automatically in most institutions. The child, however, should be encouraged and definitely taught both by the chaplain and by the sisters, freely to ask his confessor about any questions he has on his mind and about any problems that come up in his life. This is after all, next to the actual forgiveness of sins, the chief purpose

of the confessional. It is a clinic of the soul founded by the Divine Physician of souls, for *individual* consultation, diagnosis and treatment of moral and spiritual maladies and problems.

4. *Motives: Natural and Supernatural.* It is generally agreed among Catholic educators that supernatural virtues and habits should be built upon natural virtues and habits. There is often, however, a good deal of confusion as to what "natural" in the case means. "Natural" does not refer to the content or the object of the virtue in question. There is no virtuous act but falls within the wide circle of love of God and man. Truthfulness and honesty, for instance, are sometimes spoken of as natural virtues. In reality, they may be either natural or supernatural. If a boy is honest because he has been raised in an environment that takes honesty for granted, then with him it is a natural virtue. If he is honest because in addition he feels it a duty of loyalty to love his neighbor for God's sake, then it is a supernatural virtue.

The difference between the natural and the supernatural virtues is purely one of motive. If a good act is done for a supernatural motive, it is an act of supernatural virtue; if for a natural motive, it is an act of natural virtue. In how far may or should we use or recommend natural motives in training the child?

Certainly, in so far as natural motives have power for good, and regardless for the time being of the question of supernatural worth in God's sight, they may and do materially offset the occasions of sin and help the child overcome temptation. This gain is certainly worth while, even from the supernatural standpoint. We are expected to avoid or to overcome such occasions and temptations so far as possible, and no matter how far we reduce them, they will still thrive in sufficient abundance to give plenty of chance for exercising and building up spiritual muscles.

Again, where the supernatural motives have force, but perhaps not quite enough to assure results in the formation of good habits, it is not only justifiable but imperative to reinforce and to strengthen supernatural motives by natural appeals. This is not the ultimate ideal, but it does serve as a temporary compromise until the supernatural motives get a better footing. Half a loaf is better than no bread at all.

We may sum up the foregoing in the following principle: Put

the major emphasis and insistence upon the religious motives of prudence, hope, duty, gratitude and love; but do not hesitate to make such use of natural motives as may be needed to help the child over temptation or to reinforce the drawing power of supernatural appeals.

D. SUMMARY

No attempt has been made within the limits of this short chapter to give a comprehensive outline of the objectives, principles, and methods of moral education. It has been our purpose, instead to center attention upon certain key principles of method that have a particular bearing on institutional problems. The main ideas stressed in the chapter may be summed up as follows. To build up desirable habits or to cure or prevent undesirable ones, find and deal with the underlying factor or factors, not merely the symptoms. In any plan of treatment inner ideals must be so built up as to fortify the child against unfavorable influences in his environment and in his own physical and psychical constitution. In building up such ideals, use both natural and supernatural means, and appeal primarily to the supernatural motives but do not hesitate to appeal to natural motives in so far as these latter may be of help. In all cases make ample use of the supernatural means: Prayer and the Sacraments.

REFERENCES

On the necessity of individual study of the child, see Superior of St. Anthony's orphan asylum, Balto., Md., in *Proc. Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1926, 415-16; Schumacher, *ibid.*, 1927, 329-37. Two standard sources on the subjective and environmental factors in delinquency, or, as we may express it, upon the capital sins and the occasions of sin as they occur and operate in our modern life, are Healy's *Individual delinquent*, and the later work, Burt's *Young delinquent*. For briefer summaries of the rôle of such factors, see articles by Spencer, "Obstacles to character development", and by Cooper, "Diagnosis and treatment of factors in moral conduct", in *Proc. 26th meet. Nat. Cath. educ. assoc.*, 546-66. For study of factors in the gang-age boy's life, see Furfey, *The gang age*. For excellent illustrations of methods of investigation and diagnosis in complex problems of conduct, see Healy and Bronner's *Twenty case studies* issued by the Judge Baker foundation. Written in less technical form but splendidly illustrating methods of investigation and diagnosis by concrete case studies are three publications of the Commonwealth fund: Sayles, *Three problem children* (3 cases); Sayles and Nudd, *The problem child in school* (26 cases); Sayles, *The problem child at home* (12 cases).

Our best Catholic work presenting in popular form a fusion of traditional Catholic methods in moral training with the newer data from the field of character formation is Furfey's *You and your children*. It includes (pp. 162-71) a running commentary on the more useful and practical literature, mostly non-technical, of the subject. There are also numerous valuable suggestions on moral training in: Hull, *The formation of character*, and *Collapses in adult life*; Meyer, *Science of the saints*; Lindworsky, *Training of the will*; *Character education*, a symposium, in *Proc. 26th meet. N. C. E. A.*; and the abundant Catholic literature from the *Imitation of Christ* to the present day.

For personality charts, see: Schumacher, *loc. cit.*; Moore *personality estimate*; Wickman, *Children's behavior and teachers' attitudes*, appendix A; Marsh *foundation school, First year book*, 31-35.

CHAPTER III

DISCIPLINE, FREEDOM, AND SELF-RELIANCE

The Problem. Discipline, in the sense of training to act in accordance with established rules, is necessary in a child-caring home for two reasons. First, the great majority of those living in institutions are immature children, in whose training discipline plays a leading rôle. Secondly, where, as in an institution, there are a number of human beings, children and adults, living together, freedom must be limited by such rules and regulations as will safeguard their rights and welfare. Discipline, therefore, has a double function: the training of the child, and the maintenance of order.

a. *Training of the Child.* Childhood represents in the life of the human individual a transition from utter helplessness and dependence at birth to complete self-dependence at maturity. Any system of training that leaves the child at maturity unequipped for complete self-guidance has in so far failed in its basic aim. At any given age in the childhood period there must be guidance, control, and obedience, lest the child in its relative helplessness suffer. But likewise at any given age during the period there must be freedom, responsibility, and choice, lest the goal of self-reliance, which can come only through actual practice, be not attained. It follows, therefore, that as the child increases in age, control by others should increasingly give place to self-control.

b. *Maintenance of Order.* Wherever two or more human beings dwell together, rules are needed to adjust equitably their mutual rights and obligations and to safeguard their happiness and the common welfare. And, generally speaking, the greater the number of people living together, the greater is the number of adjustments necessary, and consequently the greater is the number of rules called for. In the normal home, as compared with the institution, the number of children is small, and hence fewer rules are necessary to maintain order, to promote discipline, and to regulate freedom. In the institution, on the other hand, where the number of children is larger, there must be more rules, more discipline, and less freedom.

Obviously herein lies a very real danger lest by too great clipping of freedom in the interest of order the children become repressed, hemmed in, and in so far "institutionalized". Nor is this danger entirely averted even under the best group and cottage plans of organization.

From whichever of its two functions we view discipline, the education of the child or the maintenance of order, there is manifest wisdom in granting the child the maximum of freedom that is consistent on the one hand with the need of effective training in self-reliance and on the other hand with the demands of order. Our problem may be formulated as follows. By what precise measures can we overcome, in part at least, the initial handicap of numbers under which the institution must operate? By what precise measures can we maintain order among a large group of children and at the same time gradually and increasingly build up in each of them self-reliance, self-dependence, and self-guidance?

The problem may for the sake of convenience be dealt with under three heads: discipline, freedom, and self-reliance.

A. DISCIPLINE

General Factors. There is probably nothing in the whole institutional environment that does not either directly or indirectly affect discipline. Discipline is intimately tied up with and dependent upon not only the whole program and the personnel of the institution but even upon the plant itself and its equipment. In the words of Sister Simplicita: "Well directed and active play during periods of recreation, athletic contests, group rivalry, a thoughtful distribution of responsibility, specific household tasks, economical [bestowal] of praise and blame, proper incentives—all these are powerful means of discipline in any institution."¹ And these are only some of the more outstanding features that make or mar discipline. The following are two illustrations, drawn from the present study, of the manner in which the solution of disciplinary problems is dependent upon the rest of the institutional régime.

During the first year following the transfer of the institution to its new quarters, there was no indoor gymnasium, and the

¹ Proc. Nat. conf. Cath. char., 1926, 411.

outdoor playground was so muddy that on rainy days it was not fit to play upon. The situation bore hard upon everyone of the staff. Some one had to be with the boys all the time. The sisters had much difficulty arranging for their office and other community exercises. Windows were smashed; disorder, disobedience, stealing, and many other conduct problems arose. Finally, the indoor gymnasium was built, the playground properly surfaced and equipped, and a recreation leader secured. From then on the above conduct troubles ceased and the whole disciplinary problem was very much simplified. At present, when night comes, the children are so tired from their full day's play that they go to bed and to sleep at once. (# 66)

The following is a recapitulation of some of the factors which seem to have helped to bring about the particularly smooth-running régime in another institution.

1. Each group unit in the plant is complete and is conveniently arranged with its dormitory, living room, and adequate toilet and lavatory facilities, and with mending and locker rooms next to the living room. The group mother requires a minimum of effort to supervise her group since everything is arranged for her convenience.
2. Formerly the group mother had to supervise her whole group when they took their baths in tubs. This was a long and wearisome task that involved great wear and tear on both her own and the children's nervous system. The installation of a shower room has enormously minimized effort and time, thus leaving a surplus of both for guidance of a less physical kind.
3. The use of many labor-saving devices throughout the institution relieves both sisters and children of the need of devoting to drudgery tasks a great deal of time and energy that can be much better used for other activities.
4. Finances are adequate and well planned and the sisters are spared the responsibility of collecting required funds.
5. On the staff of the institution are eighteen sisters and twenty lay employees, giving a proportion of one worker to five or six children. Lay employees do the heavy work, thus leaving the sisters free to devote the necessary time and attention to the individual training of the children.
6. Through the operation of the efficient social case-work de-

partment of the diocesan Catholic Charities, the sisters are relieved of the responsibility of intake and placing out and of securing support from parents. Moreover, well developed social policies keep down the number of children admitted to the institution, and that greatly simplifies the disciplinary problem, inasmuch as the groups within the institution are small enough to be handled easily and there is never a large number of new children to be "broken in" at one time. In 1909, 197 children were admitted to the institution; last year (1928), only 52.

7. There is a thorough health program which keeps the children in good physical condition and therefore more easily amenable to reasonable control.
8. Recreational needs of the children are amply supplied and new plans are being constantly introduced.
9. Older children go out to school, thus developing a feeling of independence and of satisfaction which goes far to offset the tendency towards the institutional attitude.
10. Children have frequent contacts with friends and relatives and a monthly opportunity to spend week-ends outside the institution.
11. The children enjoy an unusual amount of freedom in all departments of the institution, are permitted to talk freely, to go singly or in groups without marching in line, to have their preferences respected and their individuality cultivated, to visit one another in group living rooms, to have contact with their own brothers and sisters, to go out shopping, on errands, to the library and elsewhere in the city if they are old enough.
12. Rules and discipline as such are reduced to the minimum consistent with order, and the purpose of the rules themselves is explained to the children. (# 88).

The foregoing excerpts do not by any means exhaust the list of factors,—the very important one, for example, of personality of staff members has not been included,—that make discipline conducive both to order and to individual training. They do, however, serve to illustrate the intimate dependence of discipline upon the whole institutional situation, ranging from plant and equipment, through health, educational and recreational programs, to social policies and staff. If the general institutional régime is of high standard

the problem of discipline largely solves itself. It was this idea, no doubt, which one sister had in mind when she wrote: "Discipline is really easy. If we use preventive measures largely, we have little need for remedial ones."¹ At any rate, if, where the general institutional background is a wholesome one the problem of discipline is not solved one hundred per cent, it is certainly solved from seventy-five to ninety-five per cent. The other five to twenty-five per cent of the problem will ordinarily have to be solved by resort to penalty or reward.

I. PENALTIES AND REWARDS

a. *Penalties.* As a general rule, the fewer the penalties or punishments the better. It is doubtful, however, if we shall ever reach such a degree of institutional perfection as will make all penalties unnecessary. What types of penalties should be employed?

There is common agreement that certain types should be rigidly tabooed. Children should never be punished by being sent to the chapel, or by being made to say prayers. The duties of religion should not become associated in the child's mind with unpleasant things like punishment. Nor should deprivation of food be resorted to unless perhaps it mean merely the deprivation of some particular delicacy that is not required by the child's food needs. Food for the soul and food for the body are essential to the child's welfare. No good can come from mixing up things which the child needs with punishment.

Again, children should never be sent to bed as a punishment. Being thus deprived of other sources of occupation and pleasure, some children, as experience teaches, are apt to seek occupation and pleasures in auto-erotic practices.

Isolating a child, in the sense of keeping him entirely apart from the other children and alone, is open to the same objection. If as a last resort such "solitary confinement" be inflicted, then it becomes imperative to give the child something with which he may occupy his time. Younger children, for instance, may be given books; an older girl some sewing. Solitary confinement is open to grave question. Solitary confinement plus idleness is indefensible.

Degrading and humiliating punishments should ever and always

¹ Cath. char. rev., Apr., 1926, 144.

be taboo. They frequently arouse ugly antagonism, or else aggravate already existing inferiority feelings.

So far as can be ascertained from the present study, the foregoing types of punishment are looked upon with disfavor in practically all our institutions. As regards, however, two further kinds of punishment,—public reprimands and physical chastisement,—there appear to be some differences of view, although such differences are to a large extent reconcilable.

Generally speaking, the public reprimand is not in favor. But under certain circumstances it is used.

Public reprimands *may* cure, but private ones should be resorted to first. (# 349)

A public reprimand should not be given, until the child has been spoken to privately. The public reprimand tends to embitter children, and to make them repeat the offence to let others see that they are not afraid. (# 13)

A public offence often merits a public rebuke, otherwise the other children will think the offence not so serious and the culprit will appear as a hero in their eyes. A public rebuke for an offence known to but a few is a calamity. It often makes the offender sullen; it often deepens inferiority feelings; it often incites the other boys to mischief. (# 72)

Public reprimands, at least in the case of public offences, serve as preventives of misconduct on the part of the other children. (# 7, # 106, # 123, # 200)

We feel that only public faults should be publicly reprimanded. (# 207)

We find that private punishments are always better than public ones. (# 121)

Public reprimands are not approved. (# 6)

The foregoing views represent a fair cross-section of the policies and grounds thereof in vogue in our institutions. Most of the minor differences apparent in the views may be reconciled in the following recommendation: If public reprimands are to be given, they should be given sparingly and only for public offences of a more serious nature.

There is a very general feeling in our institutions that corporal

punishment should be given sparingly, if at all. In some institutions it is entirely taboo.

In no case do we resort to physical chastisement. We do not feel it is in accordance with the spirit of the Gospel. If used at all, it will at times be abused. It so often breeds rancor. We have not found it necessary, as we can attain the same ends by milder and better means. (# 338)

So many of the children have had so much corporal punishment at home that it has little effect when administered in the institution. (# 68)

While the boys may, on rare occasions, receive a little physical chastisement, the girls are never so punished. (# 27)

In very few institutions, however, is corporal punishment rigidly and under all circumstances taboo. Most of our institutional staffs feel that corporal punishment is sometimes necessary with children too young to be reasoned with, and that even with older children of ten or twelve or over, it has an emergency value, notwithstanding the abuses of it by other generations in class rooms and elsewhere. They would probably subscribe to Reeder's statement in his very sane discussion of the whole problem: "There is one thing worse than corporal punishment and that is a law prohibiting it" (How two hundred children live, 141). As one institution (# 13) expresses it: "While we very rarely have to resort to corporal punishment, we do not give the child to understand that we would never resort to it".

The more common practice appears to be:

- a. To use corporal punishment only as a last resort;
- b. To avoid administering it in anger;
- c. To eschew anything that would even remotely savor of cruelty.

A number of institutions require as further safeguards that, when administered, physical chastisement should be administered:

- a. Privately;
- b. Only by express permission in each instance from the superior or superintendent, a written record being kept of each case;
- c. Not by the person offended, in case there has been such a personal element in the offence.

Two types of punishment that are a little more in favor are those which call for extra chores or extra study. They are efficacious corrective measures. But they are open to some question on several grounds. They may go so far at times as to deprive the child of the reasonable quota of play he really needs. They tend to make household and school duties distasteful. As for extra study in particular, the child's physical presence in the study room can be enforced but he may be mentally absent or worse (# 320); moreover, so far as possible, the penalty should fit the offence; extra studies are appropriate for lessons missed, not for misconduct (# 206).

It is the general experience of our institutions that the least exceptionable and usually the most effective type of penalty is the deprivation of pleasures or of privileges, such as attending the movies, going off on trips and outings, obtaining leave to visit or to shop in the village or city, attendance at match games, and so forth.

Forewarning is of distinct value. To quote the experience of one institution, an experience shared by many:

The sisters find that they are able to do much toward correcting a fault by reminding the child that should the offence be repeated it will be necessary to deprive him of a special treat or deny him part in a picnic or some other activity to which he is looking forward. (# 39)

The following more detailed methods of punishment are in force at one of the cottage institutions.

There is one special cottage to which are sent boys who are particularly hard to control. The boys themselves do not know that this cottage is used for this purpose; in fact they rather like to be assigned to the cottage. The sister in charge is especially qualified to handle problem boys, and she is provided with an assistant. It happened that at the time of the study of the institution this particular cottage was in possession of three of the four much-coveted trophy cups.

Ordinarily, boys may be deprived of the privilege of going freely to the extensive woods on the institution grounds, of touring with the band when it performs in the neighboring towns, of attending local college football games during the season, or of participating in parties in their particular cottages. Again, if a boy who misbehaves has a brother living

with him in a particular cottage, the delinquent may be transferred from that cottage for a period; the longing to go back with his brother proves a powerful incentive to good behavior. (# 66)

b. *Rewards.* The following are some of the reward systems in use that exemplify both types of reward and principles of bestowal.

Children should be taught that obedience is a duty. They should not be made feel that each time they obey they should be rewarded. We prefer the surprise reward. (# 124)

It is felt that the child should be obedient because obedience is part of the discipline of life. It should be taken as a matter of course. To obtain obedience merely by offering rewards to the child is poor policy. The younger children are, however, at times rewarded with medals, rosaries, or picture cards, or by being given little treats downtown with one of the sisters, or by being taken to the park. (# 25)

The greater emphasis is upon prevention and positive incentives. The boys are kept busily engaged with play and other activities that provide plenty of competition and emotional release and satisfaction and thus the behavior problem largely solves itself. At night they are usually too tired, — without being exhausted, — even for pillow fights and other kinds of milder disorder. The positive incentives are the privileges of wandering around the woods, of going to outside athletic games, of attending movies in the institution, and so forth. As for school work, the boy with the highest average in each class is awarded a prize every six weeks. The ten boys who have done the best work in each class are allowed to go to local football games outside the institution; each week six or seven boys of the ten who went the preceding week give place to new boys. (# 66)

Rewards for tasks well done are special privileges, such as going down town or to the movies, or else the gift of a medal, or holy picture or something of the kind. Sometimes group rewards are given, the whole group going to the village or the park, or making a trip to the farm or a visit to the stores. (# 67)

The foregoing types of rewards are illustrative of the ones more

prevalent in our institutions. The following types are less common, and are more adapted to older or very young children respectively.

The older children, twelve to fifteen years of age, are allowed from time to time to remain up at night for an extra hour. During this time they are permitted to go into the kitchen and prepare hot cocoa or a little lunch for themselves before retiring. This plan might not be feasible in all institutions, but it has worked well in this one and has caused no disorder. (# 64)

In one of the Indian schools, one of the most coveted rewards which the older girls can merit during the week is the privilege of playing in the playroom on Friday evenings from 7:30 to 9:30 after the smaller girls have gone to bed. Only those girls are granted the privilege who have been on the honor roll every day during the week. The plan has had an excellent effect on order as all of the older girls strive to be included in this late-hour play group. (# 100)

When an older girl is asked to perform some special task, she is not told that she will receive any reward for it, but as a surprise the sister gives her a couple of tickets to some concert or theater and also carfare, and the girl goes out to it unsupervised and with a companion of her own choice. (# 39)

The only material reward appreciated among our boys, from 12 to 18 years of age, is a little extra spending money or a bonus. We tried everything else,—medals, pennants, and so forth,—but found that these were things of the past. (# 126)

For the children who are under four years of age a ride around the block in the kindergartner's auto is a special reward. Often a "party" is gotten up when the children have done something especially well; the party calls for dress-up clothing, extra table decoration, a few extra dishes, and at least one different article of food, such as animal crackers, ice cream, or small candies in colored favors. Other coveted rewards are: exploring trips to various parts of the grounds, visits to the Grotto of Our Lady, calls upon the Superior or one of the sisters in another department, journeys to the frontyard to watch the traffic go by. Deprivation of the privilege of such trips or visits is a severe punishment. Any

child who does not soil his napkin too much is rewarded by being permitted the privilege of using it again at his next meal! (# 102)

There is a good deal of question how far rewards should be proposed to children as incentives to good conduct. Some educators hold strongly to the view that rewards, particularly money rewards or rewards of things that have much inherent value, provide a wrong type of motivation. There is no doubt that much is to be said in favor of this point of view. It is well and it is important to expect obedience to reasonable rules as a matter of course and to take it for granted as part both of life and of life training. On the other hand, we have to recognize that we are dealing with immature children and very human ones at that. The practical solution of the dilemma seems to lie along the following lines, suggested largely by the experience of our institutions:

- a. It is better ordinarily to be chary of giving *money rewards*,—as distinct from opportunities of earning money,—except to those children who have no parents, relatives or friends to supply them with pocket money. (See section *infra*, on Earning Money)
- b. Rewards of a material kind should not be too valuable in themselves.
- c. Symbolic rewards such as pennants, trophy cups, medals, etc., are usually preferable to rewards that have much intrinsic value, and ordinarily it is better to award them to teams and groups than to individuals.
- d. Promise of the reward as an incentive should not be set too strongly before the child previous to the performance of the act which is to be rewarded. The surprise or semi-surprise reward is better.
- e. Discreet and understanding praise and sympathetic encouragement for duties well done are rewards which every normal child appreciates.

In our experience we have gotten more out of a little praise and *much* appreciation than out of all the stars and medals together. Children will work their heads off for a little honest appreciation. (# 123)

- f. Whatever rewards, tangible or intangible, be given, moderation in giving them is desirable. It is more wholesome for children to work and play for the satisfaction gotten out of the activity itself, without too much expectation of reward or too much consciousness of an audience.
 - g. Last but not least, tactful emphasis upon the religious obligation of obedience from motives of love and duty should accustom the child to regard these latter as the supreme motives.
- c. *Merit System.* The merit systems prevalent in many institutions are merely more organized and systematized plans of reward. They have the advantage of serving as continuous and consistent positive incentives to desirable behavior and to conscientious industry on the part of the child. Those institutions that have merit systems find them of very real value in stimulating the child to aim for and achieve improvement. Some systems concern school work only; others, out-of-school work as well. The following are some typical plans.

In school, children who make good records are permitted to wear a special silver medal. Those who do particularly well may wear a gold medal. They like these honors and work very hard for them. The successful children have an entertainment once a month, which they get up themselves. (# 26)

Each classroom has a roll of honor on which after the name of each child getting from eighty-five to one hundred per cent is put a gold star. Once a month those who have attained the gold stars in their respective class rooms are put on an honor roll placed in the school hall with a red star placed after their names. The children work hard for this honor. (# 67)

Merit and demerit marks are given both for behavior and for school progress, weekly reports being sent to the sister superior who keeps the complete records. At the end of each month those who are on the honor roll are given a special treat or have a party. (# 95)

In the third and fourth grades there has been started recently a plan according to which the names of members of each grade are put on the blackboard. Each merit earned by the boy gives him a blue star. Five blue stars equal one red

star; five red stars equal a gold star; and five gold stars win a prize for the child. In addition, the two grades compete with each other as groups for an award and a climbing star of red chalk marks the progress of each grade. (# 97)

An important caution in the use of merit systems in school work is suggested in the following comments:

Let not only the highest averages in school work be awarded prizes; let honest effort be commended more than success. (# 206)

Sometimes the children who do the best work have to exert no effort, while other children who try hardest fail to attain high marks. (# 121)

Experience has taught us that initiative and ambition for the affairs of life may be stifled in those who fail to qualify for honor rolls. Children with early sad environments often seem lost in competition. The child needs to be considered in the light of his present and previous setting. (# 332)

In view of these considerations it may be recommended, not that merit systems be abolished, but that in their use at least as much recognition be given to honest effort as to actual success, and perhaps more.

We give rewards for application to study, and award prizes to dull pupils who honestly try to improve. (# 121)

d. *Group Rewards and Merit Systems.* Group rewards and merit systems provide excellent incentives to effort and improvement. The following illustrations present concrete data both on types and on values.

A pennant for punctuality is awarded each month to either the boys or the girls. All of the boys compete with all of the girls. If, for instance, the girls have the pennant and one of them has been tardy during the month while none of the boys has been tardy, the boys get the pennant. The plan created a keen spirit of rivalry, without any bad feeling, between the boys and girls and has been an incentive for all the children to be on time at school. The pennant is kept in the class room of the eighth grade boys or the eighth grade girls according as the boys or girls of the whole school have won it for the month. (# 67)

A small silk flag on a standard is awarded and a special extra treat is given to the particular table in each of the four dining rooms that has made best progress during the preceding week in care of table cloth, in table manners, and so forth. (# 66)

A box of candy or other reward is given to all tables at which the children are particularly well-mannered. (# 13)

In assembling for school, the class that best assembles, gives attention, and salutes crucifix or flag receives a score for that assembly. Scores are added up at the end of the month. The class having the largest number of scores is declared "The Banner Class" for the month, and is awarded an outing or extra treat. The plan works well. If any girl forgets herself, the other girls quickly call her to order, because they want their class to win. (# 79)

e. *Administration of Rewards and Penalties.* The prevalent policy in our institutions is to distribute as widely as possible responsibility for the everyday maintenance of good order through the administration of rewards and penalties. The following plan is fairly typical.

Ordinary misconduct problems are handled by the teacher or staff member immediately in charge of the child. More serious misdeeds may be referred to the school principal or institution superior. Only in very rare and very serious cases is the child referred to the chaplain. (# 66, # 71, # 349)

Some feel that, in purely disciplinary problems, a child should never be referred to the chaplain.

We never refer a case to the chaplain. (# 112)

Is he expected to be a miracle-man? (# 108)

It is not well to run the risk of confusing the children by making a disciplinarian of the chaplain, even in isolated cases. (# 332)

It is an excellent idea to observe the same order of precedence in administering rewards as in imposing penalties.

Serious school problems are referred by the teacher to the principal. On the other hand, if a child does an exceptionally good piece of work in school, he is likewise sent to the principal who gives him some reward. In this way is avoided

the danger of having the principal looked upon merely as the one who administers punishment. (# 67)

The wisdom of widely distributing responsibility for the maintenance of order is obvious and need not be labored. Some of the reasons for this policy and some practical suggestions on method are contained in the following excerpts.

In more serious cases of misconduct, the staff member talks over the matter with the superior. If the plan agreed upon does not work out successfully, a second conference takes place. The superior will then take occasion to bring up the matter incidentally and inconspicuously with the child himself. It is felt that holding up the superior as the last word in punishment does not make for good spirit and morale. (# 42, # 109)

The superior urges each sister to shoulder her own responsibility with her own group. Only on rare occasions is a child permitted to be sent to her for correction. She feels that children soon sense who has the upper hand and are apt to ignore lower authority. (# 85)

A house divided against itself will fall. There are few more potent factors of juvenile misconduct than dissension between parents on policies of child training and management. In institutions the same fact holds. Children are sharp enough to play off one person against another. Chaos follows. A staff member is human, and hence not infallible. An avenue of appeal should in fairness be left open to the child. Much tact may be required in such cases to safeguard both the rights of the individual child and the welfare of the whole group. Wholehearted agreement between superiors and staff members on policies and practices in the maintenance of order is universally recognized in our institutions as a primary need.

2. GENERAL PRINCIPLES

In accordance with the method followed throughout the present Manual, the treatment of concrete policies and practices here precedes the treatment of general principles. The order of precedence in presentation should not, however, be taken for the order of importance. In the disciplinary field, there are many things much more important than, for example, rewards and punishments. These

latter have their place therein, but it is a secondary one. One of the many more important things has been touched upon by one superior in the following words:

When we come down to the fine point, I firmly believe that the personality of those in charge of the children is *the* one thing necessary in discipline. All good things come along with it. (# 22)

The personality of the superior and staff members is certainly the key, not only to good order, but to nearly all things else in the institution. The point will be expanded in the chapter on Administration and Finance. Here we may list those disciplinary principles that appear from the present study to be most important.

1. The discussion in the preceding section may be summed up in the following four basic and closely related principles:
 - a. Build up the habit of obeying from the inner motive of religious love and duty;
 - b. Keep the children busy and interested in work and play;
 - c. Put only a minor stress on penalties;
 - d. Put the major stress on positive incentives.
2. Disciplinary rules should be as few as possible and should of course be reasonable; these few should be strictly, though humanely, enforced. Strictness is quite consistent with humaneness. One of the real arts that distinguish the disciplinary genius is the art of knowing just when not to see minor wrongdoing!
3. We should ever keep in mind that the function of disciplinary rules is primarily to train the child and only secondarily to keep order.
4. It is important that, for older boys at least, there should be a great deal of masculine influence. In institutions conducted by priests or brothers (e.g. # 36, # 45, # 47) this is provided automatically. The following are some of the various plans in vogue in institutions conducted by sisters, which may serve as practical suggestions. All these plans are working well.

The larger boys in the institution are directly under the supervision of a layman who acts as prefect. (# 44)

Masculine influence is provided along the following lines: Through the chaplain who mingles a great deal with the boys; through the athletic director and his assistant, one or both of whom are with the boys on the playground some hours each day winter and summer; through the band master and the physical training director who are with the boys for an afternoon or evening each week. (# 66)

The boys from 11 to 16 years of age are divided according to age, into six groups of forty each. The boys of the two oldest of the six groups, that is the boys of about fourteen to sixteen years of age, are directly under a layman and his layman assistant at all times except during school hours. The four groups of younger boys are, while in their dormitories on the second and third floors of the boys' building, in charge of the sisters. Except when they are in the dormitory or at school they are under the supervision of the two lay male prefects. For all the boys the rule holds that when they are performing chores in other buildings they are under the sisters. This plan provides well for male influence upon and supervision over the boys, and has worked out most satisfactorily in all respects. (# 68)

A very wholesome masculine influence is afforded the boys through their contacts with the superintendent of the farm. He is a man of high character, a college graduate, and a splendid athlete. The instructors in the vocational department know their jobs thoroughly, command the respect of the boys, and have an excellent constructive influence over them. (# 93)

The prefect, a young layman, a college graduate, has supervision of both the smaller and larger boys in the dormitory and during play time. The chaplain keeps in close touch with all the boys. The boys who work in the barn come into contact with the farm superintendent and his two assistants, all of whom have a good influence over the boys. (# 95)

5. Eternal vigilance is a necessity, but it should be sympathetic and, so far as possible, unobtrusive. Watchfulness is one thing; spying is quite another. The children should be given the maximum responsibility consistent with age and other circumstances. In a normal family, control and watchfulness are tempered and inspired by a love that is real in it-

self and at the same time obvious to the child. Only those who love children and love to work with them have a place on an institutional staff. Furthermore they should have no hesitation in letting the child know that they really do love him. If they really love the child, their affection will be manifest to him in all their ways and deeds.

6. The child should be trained to realize that obedience to reasonable law is itself reasonable because necessary both for his own moral and spiritual development and for the protection of others' rights and welfare. One cannot admit that children should obey only when they understand the reasons for rules and commands given. They must learn to obey even in the case of rules whose purpose they do not understand. But throughout childhood there should be gradual progress from the blind obedience of infancy towards the rational obedience of maturity. Ordinarily, the double purpose of discipline is much better attained if the reasons for disciplinary measures are frankly explained to and fully understood by the children themselves, adaptation of course being made to the children's age and mentality. The following are some concrete illustrations of the general principle.

The children are always told why a rule is made and what benefit is derived from it. For instance, in front of the institution and between the two playgrounds, is a lawn enclosed with shrubbery and beautifully kept. On this lawn the children are told not to play. It is explained to them that every family that has a nice home has some kind of ornamental yard and if they, the children, did not have such at their own home (the institution) the whole place would look ugly. If a ball happens to land in this part of the yard they are free to enter it and to retrieve the ball, but they should take care not to trample on flowers and shrubs. (# 27)

The children are told why regulations are called for. The sisters feel that obedience has been secured more readily and without refractoriness on the part of the children. The plan enables the sisters to appeal to religious motives in the child and to show how the Commandments of God are likewise inspired by God's concern for our welfare. (# 42)

If some general delinquency occurs, the cooperation of the children is always sought to remedy it. In a talk to the group it is explained why the behavior has been undesirable, and the sense and intelligence and good will of the children are appealed to. For example, one group,—in this case the second grade,—had misbehaved consistently for several days in their school room because they had succeeded in getting the advantage of a new teacher. When all of the children in the institution were invited to the movies, the second grade children were asked to go instead to the school room where the superior talked with them about their conduct. The children readily admitted that they had misbehaved and that they really did not deserve the privilege of going to the movies. They were fair enough to specify one girl who had not joined in their misconduct and who they felt should be allowed to attend the movies. The superior further explained to them that their teacher had other things she wished to do but would have to stay with them in the school room so they could make up some of the time they had lost playing during school hours. There was no difficulty in the second grade room after this. (# 88, similar general plan in # 208)

What applies to the children as a group applies as well to individuals, particularly individuals who have been guilty of infractions of reasonable rules.

When a child has misbehaved, the teacher or group mother or superior, as the case may be, talks over the whole matter with him in a frank and wholesome manner, the child being freely permitted to present his side of the story. Together they reason the thing out to the satisfaction of both, the intelligence as well as the conscience of the child being appealed to. (# 13, # 22, # 107, # 112, # 117, # 124)

7. Group rewards are usually excellent. Group punishments are usually the reverse. If all the members of a given group have been guilty of misbehavior, there is no reason why group penalties should not be imposed. In practice, however, it is not common for all the members of the group to be guilty of a given misdemeanor. If children are made to suffer for misdeeds committed by others in their group, they are victims of injustice, and they recognize this and deeply

and rightly resent it. One superintendent puts it even more strongly.

Group punishments not only make children sour and surly, but breed liars and thieves. (# 72)

8. Tale-bearing, however masked or camouflaged, has no place in any institution. It should not be encouraged even to the extent of listening to it, let alone acting upon it. Reporting is admissible only on those extremely rare emergencies when grave moral situations arise. Tale-bearing is odious in the eyes of children, and the children's view is in full harmony with Catholic principles of charity. For it is extremely important, in the interests of neighborly love, that every measure be taken to safeguard and promote the spirit of comradeship and of mutual trust and confidence that ordinarily obtains among groups of children, whether in the home, the school or the institution. The encouragement or tacit permission of reporting by one child on another is a contribution to the breakdown of affection, good spirit and Christian love among children. If reporting be countenanced, it puts temptation in the way of certain children who will gladly seize the opportunity to curry favor with their superiors for selfish reasons. Tale-bearing is underhand. It is as un-American as it is unchristian.

Still less should any child be required or asked to reveal misbehavior on the part of other children. And this rule also applies emphatically to situations where it is known that a given misdeed has been committed by one of a given group but it is not known who precisely in the given group have been the guilty parties. To ask a child to report under the circumstances or to impose penalties upon the group unless some child informs on the others is tempting the children to hatred, deceit, and many other evils.

It is even very questionable if children should be *made* to tell on themselves. By this is not meant that they should never be questioned regarding misconduct. By "making them tell on themselves" is meant demanding peremptorily that the

unidentified culprit own up to his guilt or sternly putting to a suspected child the blank question "Did you do this?" and requiring him willy-nilly to answer. This method of approach is often both a temptation to lying and a challenge to matching wits with the adult questioner. On the other hand, questioning of a less peremptory and more kindly type is not open to these objections, if the children are already trained to voluntary and frank acknowledgment of misbehavior.

The best plan is to train the children to confess *without being* questioned. In many institutions there is an admirable tradition, well established among and heartily accepted by the children, that, if anything goes wrong, the children involved bring up the matter freely and of their own initiative with their immediate superior and are met more than half way by the latter for their frankness and openness.

The children in most cases "tell on themselves". The sisters have very sane ideas of what is right and what is wrong and do not make a great deal of small offences. For instance, some of the boys in playing ball had broken one of the school windows. After the game was over they went to the head of the boys' department and told her that they had broken a window. She sent them to the school principal. The principal made very little of the matter and told them that she considered it an accident; that they were playing on their own playground where they were supposed to play; that she would, of course, have felt very differently about it if they had broken the window by throwing stones at it or in some other culpable way. (# 67)

Our larger boys have what they call an "honor system". When they commit any offence, they try to be the first to break the news, even though they know they will be deprived of some pleasure. (# 13)

The following comment speaks for itself.

A misdemeanor freely acknowledged should be freely pardoned, and the punishment should be mitigated. (# 206)

Giving the child a chance to tell his story and to present his version of an affair is highly desirable. This is best done

with no third party present : three are a crowd. If a child be given such a chance, he will usually tell the truth freely,—and with little or no questioning,—even though he knows he will not get off scot-free. Such occasions are, for tactful and understanding counselors, golden opportunities to render effective and lasting service to the youngster.

9. If a member of the staff has punished a child and has later found out that the child did not actually commit the fault for which he has been punished, some amends should be made to the child,—a perfectly honest and open admission to the child that a mistake has been made, and whatever other compensation the circumstances may call for. This is what we expect between adults and it is what justice requires. Instead of lowering the teacher or group mother in the eyes of the child it will raise her, and will in addition be evidence to the child that she is ready and willing to practice justice as well as to preach it.

We never fail to apologize to a child if we have accused or punished him wrongly. (# 13)

10. It is well worth while enlisting the leaders among the children themselves both in the maintenance of high standards of discipline and in curing unsatisfactory discipline conditions that may exist. The following is a case in point.

The sisters are always on the lookout for leaders among the children, and when there is any particular trouble they pay special attention to the leaders and appeal to them, and thus have been very successful in raising general standards of behavior in the whole group. (# 67)

Some care needs to be taken lest seeming leaders be merely children who are bidding for favoritism. This point will be touched upon more in detail later in the present chapter.

11. When either a promise of reward or a threat of punishment is given, it should be consistently carried into actual execution. It is well that the children be definitely convinced that what is said is meant. A touch of the automatic such as occurs when one keeps or breaks a law of nature is of value

when there is question of human law and discipline. Inconsistent and erratic bestowal of reward and infliction of penalty confuse the child and enfeeble the force both of incentives to good and of deterrents from evil.

12. While a touch of the automatic is valuable, on the other hand it is of basic importance that misconduct be judged and dealt with in the light of the underlying causes.

Never punish when the misdemeanor has resulted from ignorance of the rules, as, for instance, in the case of newcomers. Never punish when the misdemeanor is the consequence of error, oversight, forgetfulness or lack of prudence on the part of the person in charge. (# 206)

Each child must be considered as an individual and treated as such, whether there is a virtue to be cultivated, or a weakness or misdemeanor to be corrected. Close your eyes to their mistakes. Never scold or punish the child for doing some damage like, e. g., breaking a dish when it is purely accidental. (# 128)

Where the cause of the misconduct is error on the part of the child or of those in charge of him, the remedy is obviously, not punishment for the past, but fuller enlightenment and better wisdom for the future. The cause may however, be, not error, but a personality warped by home background or associates, psychic conflicts leading to release through rebelliousness, subnormal or defective bodily or mental conditions, and so forth. An apparently incorrigible child is often transformed into an upholder of law and order once the causes of his previous misbehavior are discovered and wisely treated. Sympathetic insight into children's ways and motives is called for in all who are responsible for their training in obedience to rule and law. A fuller discussion of the importance of *discovering and treating the causes* of misbehavior is given in the chapter on Moral Training.

In such matters of disciplinary control, the responsibility may at times devolve upon the superior of the institution to coach and train intensively any members of her staff, who may lack experience in child management, or who may be less gifted with intuitive insight into children's problems and motives.

13. As regards the infliction of penalties, some further principles that are suggested are :

- a. Punishment attains its purpose better if not too long delayed after the commission of the offence (# 320) ;
- b. Minor offences deserve minor penalties ; major offences, major penalties (# 126) ;
- c. A tactful disciplinarian who has the child's confidence often finds it both feasible and desirable after a heart-to-heart talk to let a guilty child have a part in passing sentence on himself and in determining the penalty.
- d. Penalties, like rewards, should be adapted to the age of the children.

3. OBEDIENCE

The subject of obedience has been dealt with implicitly throughout the preceding pages, so need not be treated at length in this particular section of the chapter.

As to the necessity of requiring obedience to reasonable rules and commands, there is no difference of view among those who have to do with children whether inside or outside of institutions. Such obedience should be taken for granted, as a matter of course, as part of the everyday routine of life. The child who has not learned it, is headed for a rude awakening sooner or later,—usually sooner.

It need hardly be added that what the child is expected or told to do should be in itself reasonable and within the capabilities of the child, and that the order should be clearly explained and courteously given. Obedience is hard at times for all of us. Courtesy to adult or child on the part of those whose duty it is to require obedience is entirely consistent with firmness, and would appear to be demanded by both the spirit and the example of Christ.

Obedience may be merely external, or may be internal as well. The former without the latter savors more of the jail and the chain gang. Obedience is a virtue only when it comes from within. If the sole purpose of discipline were the maintenance of order we could well be satisfied with external obedience. But inasmuch as the primary purpose of discipline is the training of the child, we must needs aim at building up the habit of inner obedience.

Small breaches of rule should not be magnified into serious sins, but obedience to their superiors as being obedience to God, their good

Father in whose place their superiors in the institution stand, should be insistently and consistently set before and instilled into the children's consciousness and conscience. Obedience to just law in all situations or walks of life, if it is to be both effective and abiding, must rest in the last analysis upon the inner motive of duty and ultimately upon the inner motive of duty to God.

B. FREEDOM

If self-reliance and self-guidance are to be built up, there must be ample opportunities for choosing. The granting, therefore, of the maximum of freedom consistent with the necessities of order and of training should be one of the primary policies of any institution. There appears quite clearly in our Catholic institutions a definite consciousness of this basic need and an urgent endeavor to increase all along the line the freedom permitted to the children. The following are two illustrative examples:

The institution has a standing motto which seems to have permeated the whole group of children, that is, "Freedom to do right". There is, for instance, no marching. Children go singly or in pairs or groups as they wish to dining room, chapel, and school room. It is occasionally necessary for the director or sisters to give a little talk on the undesirability of too much confusion in the halls, or for a sister to speak a quiet word to some individual child who is particularly noisy, but the system has been found to be quite satisfactory and children make their way from one department to another without any undue confusion or noise. The older children go out daily to school and to the library. According to circumstances of age and individual development the children are given freedom to visit relatives or friends, if they are suitable, and to go out shopping, or to attend the movies outside, or to leave the institution unaccompanied for other purposes. All the children, even the youngest, are free to visit relatives or friends on the monthly outing Sundays and to go on all outings during the summer. As the children grow older, the privileges increase. The experience of the institution has been to the effect that thus allowing the children as much freedom as possible and training them properly to use this freedom have had a large part in developing the good spirit

which exists in the institution. In addition, individual responsibility has been well developed, while instances of the children taking advantage of their freedom to misbehave have been rare. (# 88)

The children are allowed to talk during all their meals and are only quieted when they become too boisterous. They march in line to and from the chapel, but when going to and from the school and dining room they go in groups without forming in line. The older children are allowed special privileges such as going to town to shop or to attend movies. The older boys go out almost every day for the newspaper, especially during the baseball season. When sister grants the boys any special privilege in the way of going to town to the movies or for shopping, she nearly always finds on their return some little gift from them, such as a bar of chocolate, a few caramels, or something of the kind, to show their appreciation. (# 67)

During leisure time, the boys are free to remain inside the cottages or to play outside on the grounds; they are free to go to the extensive woods on the grounds, getting permission from their cottage mothers beforehand. They are permitted to go into the city unaccompanied whenever there is need. The boys never march in line to chapel, to dining rooms, or to school, except when returning to school at the end of the noon recreation. No bell is rung at meal times. The boys see the large clock on the school tower and guide themselves thereby. The boys talk at all meals, there being no silence period at all. In the cottages the boys are apt to be doing pretty nearly anything during free time. In one cottage, for instance, after supper in the evening the observer found six of the boys lounging around reading, with two of them sprawled on the floor reading under the living room floor lamps. In another, one boy was playing all alone with the cottage cat, while three of the others were solving the mysteries of a crystal set or just pottering around. In a third, some of the children were practicing gymnastic feats which they had learned in the gymnasium, some playing music chair, others playing marbles, two working on the crystal sets in the study room, and a number engaged in quiet reading. The boys are free to play indoors or outdoors during play time. (# 66)

The foregoing are examples of institutions in which a high standard of freedom has been worked out consistently with an equally high degree both of order and happiness on the one hand, and of good spirit and training in self-reliance on the other. A few words may be said in particular about each of the more common types of liberties allowed both within the institution and outside of it.

I. WITHIN THE INSTITUTION

a. *Marching in Line.* One of the characteristics that used to strike most forcibly a visitor to a child-caring institution was the seemingly incessant marching of the children in lines of all lengths. The drift in our Catholic institutions at present seems to be sharply away from this older regulation. Some of the institutions—a couple of illustrations are given in the preceding paragraphs—have entirely given up marching in line or have reduced it to a minimum. They feel that the change has helped to break down “institutional” atmosphere and routine, to give more freedom, and to individualize the child better, without in the least hurting good order. Seemingly as many of the larger institutions as of the smaller have made the change. Some illustrations follow.

The only time the children march in line is when they are going to chapel in the early morning. (An institution of 703 children—# 14; another of 235 children—# 200)

The only time the children ever march in line is after recess. The line is formed as is done in the public schools. (156 children—# 27)

There is no line formation at any time. (151 children—# 72)

The children do not march in line to or from meals or chapel. (401 children—# 80)

b. *Talking at Meals.* In seminaries and religious houses it is a common custom to have silence or reading at some or most of the meals. The reasons that support, recommend, or justify this long-established custom for seminaries and religious houses cannot however ordinarily be said to apply to children's institutions. And much the same can be said regarding talking or silence at most other times. As a general rule freedom to talk during meals is a freedom which we all, young or old, appreciate, and, moreover, a freedom which promotes both our physical and social well-being.

Free conversation at all meals is permitted, to aid digestion and to promote happiness. (# 55)

The children are permitted to talk at all meals. They seem to enjoy their meals much better if they are free to talk. (# 13)

Children are seated four at a table. They are ordinarily expected to talk with those of their own table. This keeps down boisterousness. (# 200)

Silence at meals, marching in line, and similar restrictive measures, are apt to lead to a complete throwing off of restraint, when on the child's discharge such restrictions are lifted from him. (# 202)

c. *Freedom in Play.* More attention is given to this point in the chapter on Recreation. It may merely be urged in passing that during leisure time every possible freedom be given to the children that is consistent with reasonable order. Some institutions find it advisable to require the children to play outdoors a good part of the time during the free periods. Other institutions seem however to get the same desirable results by general persuasion instead of regulation. The liberty to play indoors or outdoors has the advantage of making allowance for the individual tastes of children, many of whom find their real recreation, at times at least, in reading or quiet indoor games. The few exceptional children who are noticed taking less than the advisable amount of active outdoor play can easily, under the free indoor play system, be reached individually and are so reached in the institutions that operate under the system.

2. OUTSIDE THE INSTITUTION

a. *Permission to Go Out.* The custom of permitting children to go outside the institution, either singly or in pairs or small groups and unaccompanied, or else with a minimum of supervision, has grown apace in our institutions and is today, if we may judge from the present study, the rule rather than the exception. More commonly, but not universally, the boys are allowed more freedom than are the girls. The distance of the institution from the nearest village or city, if the institution be in a suburban or rural section, is of course taken into account. Moreover, the age and individual dependability of the boys or girls themselves are considered in allowing greater or

lesser freedom. The general ideal aimed at is to grant the children of the institution about as much freedom as would be granted them by conscientious and prudent parents if the children were living in their own homes, reasonable allowance being made for the greater number of children in an institution, for lack of background and of training in dependability, and for the possibility of contagion.

In a very great number of our institutions, probably in the majority of them, the children are allowed to go out singly or in small groups and unaccompanied from about the age of twelve to fifteen, or in some cases even earlier, for purposes such as the following: to go on errands; to deposit money in the bank; to do their own shopping; to make purchases for themselves or for the institution; to attend entertainments, movies, plays, concerts, or athletic games; to earn money on the outside; to attend outside school; to go to the parish church for services or confession; to visit relatives or friends. The following are some of the typical plans in use.

The fixed general policy prevails of allowing children to leave the grounds singly or in pairs or in small groups just about as children are allowed to leave their own homes. Occasionally children go out in small groups walking, but this is not common.

Permission to leave the grounds is quite readily granted to all children who are old enough to travel alone safely and whose record for conduct at the time is good. Denying this permission to leave the grounds alone is one of the chief means of maintaining good conduct.

The children go out thus in ones, twos, or threes, according to circumstances, for the following purposes: to go shopping in town; to go on errands for the institution; to take cultures and Shick-tests in the city; to go to the movies or theaters; to attend big league baseball games and University football games; to attend, for instance, a Passion Play; to visit homes to which they have been invited and which are known to be suitable; to visit their own folks or ill relatives, etc.

Before leaving the grounds the child must obtain permission and careful record is kept of all children who are off the grounds. If, for instance, the lay prefect, in charge of the boys, gives permission to a boy to leave the grounds, he keeps

his own record and in addition at once sends word of the fact to the main office. This is done so that the whereabouts of all the children at any one time is definitely known. A boy who leaves the institution grounds without permission is penalized.

Generally speaking, the girls go out alone or in couples less frequently than do the boys. No definite age limit is put for granting permission. The same procedure regarding age, responsibility, etc., is followed as is followed by the ordinary conscientious parent. If the children are going out at night, then they go out in small groups.

It is emphatically the experience of the institution that this system of allowing the children to go out unsupervised but under the above limitations has caused no problems whatever to the institution, has worked decidedly well, has had splendid effect on the morale of the children, and has helped to develop a sense of personal responsibility. Inasmuch, too, as the privilege of leaving the grounds is known to be given only to children who have a good conduct record, the system has very decidedly simplified and buttressed the whole field of discipline. The results are particularly interesting in view of the fact that the number of children at the institution is not small but large, namely, about seven hundred. (# 68)

Children are allowed to leave the grounds with permission, providing they are old enough and reliable. They are sent on special errands or go to do shopping for themselves or for the sisters. The superior finds that the system has the advantage of developing initiative and responsibility in the child. (# 79, # 109)

Children are allowed to leave the grounds alone provided they are of a type that may be trusted. The age is usually between thirteen and fifteen years. They occasionally go on important errands for the superior. (# 64)

Older boys are sent on errands of importance and sometimes to the bank with considerable sums of money for the Brother Superior. When the boys attend theatrical performances, provision is made by the Brother Superior for the boys to go supervised and in busses. If the occasion requires it, he purchases their tickets, thus preventing them from feeling they are objects of charity and likewise creating a feeling of

independence, a feeling of belonging to a worthwhile group instead of one that is isolated and different. (# 36)

The children, boys and girls, are given permission quite freely during leisure time to leave the grounds. They go alone, in pairs, or in groups, as they wish. The institution itself is not among the largest, but it has one hundred and sixty-five children, including both boys and girls ranging in age from five to fourteen. Experience has shown no abuses to speak of beyond minor and negligible delinquencies such as might occur among children in any good family home. The advantages of the plan in building up loyalty, morale, and good spirit, as well as in training to self-reliance, have been marked. (# 27)

The boys are often sent on errands, or go to the bank to deposit their own money. When they attend entertainments or athletic events in numbers they are accompanied by the chaplain. On Saturdays the seventh and eighth grade boys go out alone to church for confession. The boys are allowed out on all legal holidays, and during Christmas, Easter and summer vacation periods. They rarely get into any trouble. If they do, they are campused for a period. "We like to have them go out, as it makes them brighter and more dependable." (# 121, a boys' home)

Among the institutions that permit the children to go outside unaccompanied, there are some differences of policy regarding age and sex.

Girls do not go out unaccompanied, but the boys do who have finished the eighth grade. (# 14)

Contrasting somewhat with this plan are the following ones.

The children are allowed to go out unaccompanied, but ordinarily two friends together, rather than singly. (# 11, a large institution for girls)

The girls are allowed to go out for school (eighth grade up), shopping, occasional visits to friends or theaters, and so forth. From experience the sisters have found that the girls return willingly, seem more contented, and do their work with more spirit. (# 98)

Our boys go out singly or in groups from the third and fourth grade up. Full confidence is put in the seventh and eighth grade boys. No serious problems have arisen. (# 72)

While the drift in our institutions is decidedly toward permitting the children to go out under varying limitations and precautions as exemplified in the preceding excerpts, some institutions have hesitated to adopt the policy in any large measure. They fear the children may get hurt, or may be thrown into occasions of sin, or may get into some other trouble. Such prudential considerations can not be airily waved aside. On the other hand, it is the universal experience of the institutions that are actually operating under the free system that when rationally and judiciously administered it gives rise to no real problems or appreciable abuses.

That such hazards as would appear at first blush to exist can be reduced to a negligible minimum seems amply demonstrated by actual and wide experience, at least for our American institutions and American children.

Apart from this concrete test of experience, two more general considerations have a bearing on the problem of possible hazards. The first is this. Free-will is a liberty at which both saint and we of commoner clay marvel. At the possibilities of abuse of free-will we stand aghast. Yet the infinitely wise Father of us all has given free-will to child and adult alike. Without freedom,—and freedom has always attendant possibilities of misuse,—there can be neither virtue nor education in virtue.

A second consideration is closer to our institutional experience. The system that does not permit the children to go out has its own peculiar hazard. There is obvious danger lest, when they are discharged from the institution into their own homes or foster homes, or into boarding-house and business life, they find themselves quite untrained to use wisely the freedom to come and go into which they are suddenly and unpreparedly thrust.

Throwing a child suddenly into deep water is not the safest way of teaching him or her to swim. Training to wise use of freedom is a gradual process. The dilemma is a clear one. Such training by practice must be given, else the risk of later misuse is grave;

yet such training necessarily involves some risk. That the risk in allowing children to go out under prudent precautions and limitations is negligible appears from our American experience, while the positive advantages of the system are many.

Some of the advantages discovered by actual test have been stated incidentally in the excerpts cited above. Some of these advantages have been summarized as follows in the experience of one institution which permits its children, boys and girls, under prudent limitations a very large measure of freedom to go out.

Children lose their sense of being shut in.

Children develop an "attitude of home" towards the institution.

Children gain much experience in exercising individual responsibility, in spending money, in finding their way about the city, in developing ease when meeting people, and so forth.

Going out breaks the monotony and routine of institutional life and gives the children an appreciated and valuable change.

Children have good times on outings and visits and are more ready to readjust to institutional discipline after their return. (# 88)

b. *Visiting Relatives and Friends.* The question of permitting children in the institution to make longer visits, such as all-day ones, to their relatives or friends, is just a little more complicated and the experience of our institutions has not been uniform. The following may serve as illustrations of practice as well as of the pros and cons.

The children used to be allowed to go home to visit their families or relatives. The plan however was abandoned because the children would sometimes return to the institution either ill themselves or carriers of contagion. Some of the children whose relatives are very suitable people have lost out through the change of plan. The sisters are very sorry that this should be the case, but they do not think it wise to make any exceptions. (# 14)

The children are allowed to visit relatives or friends if the home has been approved by the institution worker. No undesirable results are reported from this plan. (# 80)

The children are allowed on visiting days to go home with friends who come for them. The plan is working quite satisfactorily. (# 18)

All the girls from the third grade up attend the parochial schools. Often the girls are invited to spend the day or week-end with school companions. This is allowed if the family is known. (# 55)

Visiting is not permitted during the winter months on account of the danger of bringing back contagious disease. (# 123)

Generally speaking, the children are not encouraged to visit their homes during their stay in the institution. The chief reason for this is the health hazard involved in home visiting. If, however, it is clear that such health hazard or other danger is not present, home visits are permitted. It is quite common moreover for boys and girls who have no one of their own to visit for dinner or for a day, to visit the families of members of the Knights of Columbus and of the Catholic Daughters who take an active part in the social life of the institution and who are in close personal touch with the children. Results of the whole foregoing plan have been entirely satisfactory and no health or other problem has arisen. (# 68)

One day a month the children may go out with their relatives or friends and spend the day with them. This permission for "Outing Sunday" is granted even to the smallest children in the institution, those of only three years of age. Among the advantages accruing from the plan in the institution are these:

The family spirit is kept alive through these frequent contacts of children with parents and relatives.

Getting away for the day has all the values of other permissions to leave the institution (see preceding section a).

The sisters themselves get a chance to have a short period away from the children and to enjoy a brief rest from their constant responsibilities.

The only appreciable disadvantage experienced in regard to these outside visits has been the occasional overfeeding of young children with food unsuitable for them. When this has happened and the child has been sick after its return from the home visit, the sister has talked to the relatives or friends

on their next visit and has advised them against letting the child overeat next time. A very minor drawback is that exceedingly careless relatives or friends occasionally send the children back to the institution with their clothes dirty and mussed up. When this occurs, children are not permitted, when visiting next time, to put on their best clothes, but instead wear clothing which is easily cleaned. No serious health problem has arisen under the system. On the whole, the sisters feel that the disadvantages of the plan are negligible when compared with its very great advantages. (# 88)

A plan similar to the foregoing is in force, the first Sunday of each month being set aside for such outside visiting. (# 109)

The children are allowed every Sunday to visit the homes of relatives and friends, if the homes are known to be all right. Problems regarding health, policies in meeting the situation, and experience as to relative advantages and disadvantages under the weekly plan have been the same as those of # 88 under the monthly system. (# 112)

Outside visiting presents two problems, as suggested in the foregoing illustrations, the problem of health and the problem of discrimination.

As regards health, experience appears to differ. Some institutions (# 14, # 13, # 105, # 124) have met difficulties. Others (# 19 and institutions cited above) have not. What the explanation of this contradictory experience is cannot be satisfactorily determined from the facts at hand. After all, if the home of relative or friend is such as to permit visiting at all, there is little if any more danger of contagion from such visiting than from other types of outside contact, yet all institutions permit the children to go out either unaccompanied or under staff chaperonage. Then, too, the wider use of inoculations and immunizations in institutions is rendering such outside contact less and less hazardous. As a further safeguard, a check-up with local Board of Health records is usually possible. Most Boards of Health not only have information on prevalent contagious diseases but issue a daily list of quarantined houses. It is generally agreed that whatever danger of contagion there may be,—and many institutions believe from experience that

it is much overestimated,—it is very much less in the summer months than during the winter.

Furthermore, as visiting relatives or friends presupposes that they are known by the institution to be trustworthy, the hazard can be still more reduced both by the previous investigation itself and by a definite understanding with such relatives and friends that a child cannot in justice to himself or to the other children visit them if there be communicable illness in the home.

The second problem is that of discrimination. It has been very clearly and forcibly formulated by one of the motherhouses as follows:

In our experience we have found that many of our children are with us simply because of defective home surroundings and influences. Hence the permission to visit their home could not be granted to the children indiscriminately. Immediately a differentiation occurs for which the children themselves are not to blame, and these the very children who were the more apt already to be suffering from inferiority feelings. (# 201)

Two slightly different aspects of the same problem are pointed out in the following comments:

To let some go who have suitable homes causes discontent and murmuring among those who have not and hence cannot go. (# 123)

The biggest drawback to the home-visiting plan lies in the fact that often very poor children may not visit their homes because they have been taken away from delinquent and unfit parents by court order. (# 72)

A further point that is raised is this: If the parents are fit, then the children should be home with them, not in the institution; if so unfit that children should not be with them for good, then they should not be with them for shorter visits.

The problem of discrimination, like that of health, is a knotty one. But many institutions feel from their experience that in reality it can be largely solved. If the parent or parents be not fit, of course the children do not go home. Children, however, who have no par-

ent, or who cannot go to their own homes, can and do commonly go visiting suitable homes of friends or of relatives other than parents. In a great many cases, the child's own home is quite fit, at least for a day's visit, although varying circumstances demand that the child reside at the institution for the time being at least.

As against the drawbacks, must be considered the advantages. These drawbacks, if we may judge from the experience of the institutions that permit such visiting, can be largely or entirely counteracted. The advantages on the other hand, are great. They have been summarily listed above. First, such all-day visiting has all the values of other types of outside contact. Secondly, it gives the staff a little needed respite. Third, and most important of all, it helps to knit home, kin, and friendship ties. Catholic traditions and social work principles are completely at one in maintaining that, where there be any hope whatever of mending the broken family, all efforts must be made so to mend it. The child's place is in his own home and with his own parents. Home visiting clearly tends to keep alive family spirit, and often hastens the mending process, if only through the child's own influence and insistence.

Where the parents are dead or hopelessly unfit, visiting kin and friends at least strengthens kinship and friendship bonds, which are important assets for all of us, and particularly for the child isolated in the institution. No freedom is more appreciated or more valuable than the freedom to visit and be visited by kinsfolk and friends.

We may merely sum up the discussion as follows. There is no doubt room for difference of view as regards outside visiting, but it would seem, from the experience of our institutions, that while there are some drawbacks to the plan of permitting visiting, these disadvantages can be prevented or else reduced to a minimum. On the other hand such minor disadvantages as may remain seem more than offset by the major advantages of the system.

C. SELF-RELIANCE

Almost every factor or influence that helps at all to train the child, helps, directly or indirectly, to train him in self-guidance and self-reliance. Two such factors of major importance,—law and education in obedience thereto, freedom and education in the proper use thereof,—have just been dealt with. Other contributory factors

are treated elsewhere, particularly in the chapters on Religious Care, Moral Training, and Mental Health. In the remaining pages of the present chapter attention will be confined to three types of responsibilities that play a direct and particular part in training toward self-reliance; chores or domestic responsibilities, care of others or social responsibilities, possessions or economic responsibilities.

I. CHORES

In a normal family home, the children are expected, and rightly, to bear their proportional share of home tasks and thus to take their just part in the physical upkeep of the home. This sharing of the child in home tasks serves important educational ends. A child receives much; the habit of receiving should be offset by the habit of giving. Moreover, many home chores provide a certain amount of vocational training for the child. Again, judiciously distributed, home chores are, or can be made, practice in taking responsibility. Finally, home tasks, particularly when shared by parent and child working side by side, are one of the great media that bring parent and child into cooperative, active, close, and continuous personal contact and that thus provide ideal occasion for the character training of child by parent. The home is the ideal training school for the child largely because it is an enterprise in which both parents and children take joint and complementary parts. The chores or daily duties and household tasks asked of children in an institution have the same constructive educational values in the institution that they have in the home. Likewise the same cautions and counsels that apply in a family home apply in an institution.

a. *Cautions.* The two most important cautions suggested by the experience of our institutions are the following:

- (1) Chores should not be so onerous as to curtail unduly the two or three hours daily of free time which children need as a matter both of health and of mental and moral training. All work and no play, or less play than is needed, are apt to make Jack not only a dull boy but also a physically and morally handicapped boy. One institution, (# 11) for example, has established a maximum limit of one and one half hours a day for chores.

In every home there is necessarily some drudgery.

Great watchfulness is necessary, as one superior (# 55) emphasizes, lest too much drudgery fall to the lot of the children. This is perhaps particularly the case in the early morning period of school days. It is easily possible for children to lead a breathless existence from the moment they rise until the moment they enter the classroom. A little breathing space in the open, as exemplified in the following excerpt, may be heartily recommended, particularly if the children attend school in the institution and thus have not the advantage of a little fresh air while going to school.

We so arrange our chores and schedule as to leave all the children a full half-hour of free time between breakfast and school time. (# 108)

It need hardly be noted, that, insofar as finances permit, drudgery tasks that give the child little or no vocational training are best turned over to paid domestic help. This leaves the children quite enough to do in the way of chores that will give them valuable vocational and other training.

- (2) It should be a fixed rule, as it is in most of our institutions that children are never to be taken out of school or to be released from class-room duties to do household tasks. The institutional child has as much need of and right to the full quota of school training as the child living at home.

b. *Counsels.* Some of the more constructive suggestions as to chores that come from the experience of our institutions are the following four.

- (1) As a general rule, it is better to change chores or duties frequently. In some institutions there is a shift of chores every month; in others, every three months. The two chief values of such fairly frequent shifts of task are the prevention of monotony, of routine, and of the sense of drudgery, and the prevention of varied training in the skills and practical arts. If shifted too often, however, the child has not time to learn the new task well.
- (2) So far as possible, the daily tasks of the children should be utilized as means of vocational or pre-vocational training.

- (3) As much initiative should be allowed the child in his tasks as is consistent with the age of the child and the nature of the tasks. In other words, put him on his own responsibility so far as possible.
- (4) It is of very real value where it can be arranged, for the sisters and the children to work side by side in their tasks. It gives the child more of a sense of doing his part; it brings home to him indirectly the fact that the institution is a common enterprise; it moreover gives the sisters splendid opportunities for the accidental, personal training in character traits in the child's life.

A child should be able to say: "I work with sister", not "for sister". (# 55)

The sisters always work with the children, no matter what the latter are given to do. It tends to make the children feel they are working with the sisters, rather than for them. (# 13)

These suggestions are, as is clear, along the lines of utilizing the values which chores have or can be made to have in ordinary family life.

2. CARE OF CHILDREN

Giving the older children certain responsibilities towards the younger children is a policy that prevails in a large number, perhaps in most or all, of our institutions. These responsibilities are of many kinds, such as, for instance, helping the younger children in dressing, bathing, and bedmaking; serving them at meals or taking charge of tables and teaching table manners. The following are illustrations.

In the dining room there are seventeen individual tables, each seating five children, four of the children being of varied ages, with an older girl acting in the capacity of hostess. She is responsible for seeing that the children at her table have sufficient food, partake of it properly, observe good table manners and are provided with napkins, etc. The older girls take turns in this responsibility, opportunity being thus given to each of the girls to accept responsibility and to become accustomed to the niceties proper to a hostess. (# 81)

In the cottages older brothers regularly look after their younger brothers. During free time the older boys play more or less apart among themselves, but they take a good deal of interest in the younger boys' play and help them when needed. (# 66)

Older children, boys and girls, are appointed assistant leaders in the recreation room, on the play ground, in the dormitories and dining rooms, and in practically all departments of the institution. This type of charge is looked upon as an honor by the children themselves who are chosen for their efficiency and dependability. (# 68)

Older girls sit at the head of each table and serve the younger ones. They also have responsibility for washing and bathing the younger girls and for helping to supervise some of their work. If the sister in charge of a department has to go away, she leaves the older girls in charge, and on her return finds the work completed quite satisfactorily. (# 100)

A particular problem regarding care of other children arises in connection with supervision of younger by older children during play periods. Some institutions have seemingly had no difficulty, but the experience of the others has not been so satisfactory. The older children need play and recreation as well as the younger ones, and freedom from care and responsibility is of the very essence of play and recreation. If older children are given such playtime care of younger ones, provision needs to be made for granting the former other play hours during which they will have no responsibilities.

The older children are charged with definite responsibility for the younger ones in some matters. For instance, when a fire drill is held, each senior boy and girl has the definite responsibility of going to the baby department and carrying to safety a particular baby. If the drill is held at night, each boy or girl takes the baby's slippers from under the bed, wraps him or her in the top blanket from the bed and carries the child down stairs. Older children in the baby department also help wash younger ones and older girls often help younger ones with their ironing. But in general older children are permitted to be entirely free of responsibility for the younger children in their play activities. The other method was tried

and did not work successfully because the play interests of the younger children and of the older ones were not similar and neither group was entirely happy when tied up too closely to the other. (# 88)

In each department the older children have certain responsibilities towards the younger. In the dormitories they assist them in bed-making, dressing and bathing. In recreation they have more or less responsibility towards the younger children, not so much however in a disciplinary sense as in a friendly and social one. (# 22)

In some institutions older children are given responsibilities toward newly arrived children. The plan may be cordially recommended.

When a new boy is admitted to the institution he is placed in charge of an older one who has a certain responsibility toward the new boy in coaching him, in initiating him into the ways of institution life, in helping him mix with the other boys, and in making him at home. (# 72)

When a child is first admitted she is more or less cared for by an older girl, and the sister in charge watches closely for any symptom of homesickness, as does the older girl. (# 85)

In general, while some care of younger children by older ones is of decided value, much caution is necessary lest there be too much. If there be too much, then the older children are deprived of their due and needed measure of really free time, to say nothing of the dangers suggested in the following comments.

Institution children sometimes develop a real hatred of children if they have had too much care of them during their stay in the institution. (# 317)

Older girls should not be burdened too much with the care of young children. Youth passes too quickly. Then as mothers, their lives will be spent in caring for their own. Some girls are not fond of children; after years of this duty in their youth, will they want a family of their own when they grow up? (# 55)

It is well for the larger girls to assist the younger ones, as older sisters do in their own homes. But it is also well for

the younger ones to learn to do for themselves as soon as possible, and not be kept babies. (# 123)

3. PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT

There seems to be some difference of view among those in charge of our institutions as to the advisability of self-government plans, or, to speak a little more inclusively, as to the extent to which self-government is feasible. Some of our sisters of long experience are of the opinion that self-government, as ordinarily understood, is not practicable. Of course, the problem is to a certain extent one of degree or of precise plan, for in all or most institutions self-government obtains in some measure. The difference of view prevails chiefly regarding systems of organized self-government. The following are typical plans from two of our institutions, the one plan a modified self-government system, the other a more organized one. Both these plans are of more recent introduction, but the experience to date has been very satisfactory.

The girls from the sixth grade up are organized in a club known as St. Elizabeth's Club. There are twenty-five girls in the club at present. There are ten committees in all, each committee composed of a chairman and two members, on: social ethics, entertainment, refreshments, athletics, school reports, store accounts, choir, library, applications, and rules. The first of these committees handles problems concerning the conduct of club members around the house. The club has helped give the girls a good amount of initiative and poise as well as experience in self-government, and has had a good effect on general behavior. At the meetings which are held once a month, the girls themselves preside as officers, the superior being present to help them follow parliamentary procedure. The girls have done a good deal through the club to help handle their own disciplinary problems. (# 55)

The boys are organized in groups of eight, each group headed up by and in charge of a "senior". A member of the staff is in charge of the last incomplete group. The boy who has functioned best as assistant to a "senior", that is, to a captain of one of the already established groups of eight, is appointed head of the new group when a complete eight is secured. Every "senior" is responsible at all times for the

conduct of his seven boys: in the dormitory and dining room where the boys are grouped, in chapel, at school, at work, when out. There is no direct and immediate supervision by the staff at any time or anywhere. If any complaints about a boy come in or if misbehavior is noticed, the boy's senior is called to task and advised what to do. The seniors constitute the Student Council. This Council meets with the staff of the institution. The more responsible boys are consulted on ways and means of solving the problems of problem boys. This system has been put in only recently, but so far has worked splendidly. (# 54)

Self-government plans frequently suffer from many disadvantages. Among the most outstanding of these disadvantages is the dilemma such plans may create. To be effective, they are apt to involve either hasty, biased, over-lenient or over-rigorous disciplinary measures carried out by the children themselves, or else tale-bearing or reporting on the part of the children. This latter is very apt to be little short, if at all, of an organized espionage system. A further problem is that of the bully. Older boys, if given too much authority over younger ones, sometimes take advantage of the younger children and tyrannize over them unmercifully. And older girls may do so too. Care must also be exercised lest boys or girls be chosen for responsibilities and offices who have wheedled their way into the good graces of the staff by devious methods they well know how to practise.

To a large extent these hazards can be held down to a minimum by the type of organization used. The following plan was devised and put into operation for the express purpose of avoiding the above hazards, of democratizing government, and of giving all the boys a chance to get practice in leadership. It was inaugurated back in 1911.

The boys range in age from seven to fourteen. Leaders, called "prefects", are boys from eleven to fourteen. An automatic rotation of prefects prevails. The boy, for instance, who is head or prefect at the oldest boys' table the first week, becomes prefect of a group of younger boys the second week, is in charge of serving the third, and returns to his table at the foot thereof the fourth. Meanwhile, the boy who sat at his right and so ranked next the first week, became

prefect the second, and so forth. The prefects have other duties in the dormitories, at school, and elsewhere. Every boy from eleven up has his turn as prefect. The worst boys often make the best prefects. The plan has worked very satisfactorily. (# 129)

A somewhat different type of self-government plan is represented by the following one, actually in use at a cottage-plan institution, but easily adaptable to group-plan institutions.

Our house self-government organization is very simple. It consists of a house council of three members elected by ballot. The house mother is ex-officio member of the council. Each council member is the chairman of a floor committee of three members elected in the same manner as the council. The responsibilities of these floor committees are limited to the particular floor of the house to which the committee is assigned,—to its care, cleanliness, discipline, and property protection.

A general meeting of the house government, including the council, committees and entire group is held once a week. At this meeting all matters having to do with the welfare of the house are presented, discussed and acted upon. Among the more general subjects of permanent concern of the house government are house order and service, safety of property, including both damage and loss, tongue control, good manners, mutual helpfulness, truthfulness, and enterprises having to do with the recreational and social welfare of the family group. Special meetings of the house council may be called at any time by the chairman, or the entire governing body may be called by the house mother to meet particular situations that arise.¹

The experience of our Catholic institutions as well as of non-Catholic ones appear to show, therefore, that, while participation by the children in institutional government presents certain problems, these problems are not insoluble in practice. On the other hand, if the self-government plan is utilized as a device for training the children in initiative, teamwork, and group responsibility,—in a word for democratic group living, many of the same values can be obtained from it as are obtained, for instance, from team games. Certain

¹ Marsh Foundation School, *First Year Book*, 1927, pp. 42-43.

practical principles however need to be kept in mind. Some of the chief of these are the following:

- (1) Self-government must be understood in a definitely limited sense. Only as much self-government should be permitted or encouraged as the given children involved can reasonably be expected to handle.
- (2) Any plan of self-government calls for a greater or lesser measure of supervision by the staff.
- (3) The simpler the form of organization, the better are the chances of success, at least ordinarily speaking. Sometimes one finds very elaborate plans for self-government molded on state or federal political models. Such a complex organization may serve very well in a civics class as a method of dramatization, but as a measure of actual self-government it is ordinarily too unwieldy, and is moreover too artificial. In this matter we may learn a better lesson, it would seem, from the type of spontaneous self-government that thrives among American children, both boys and girls, namely, the boy's gang, or the girl's set. The fact, for instance, that the spontaneous gang or set tends to average eight members would suggest the advisability of units about this size in self-government plans.
- (4) The self-government plan should permit the children to make their own mistakes, provided the consequences of the mistakes be not too serious. They will often learn more from their own mistakes than from our preventive coaching.
- (5) A child will commonly be just and often over-severe if asked to propose his own punishment. A whole group will commonly be just, occasionally over-severe, if there be question of penalizing themselves as a group. The penalizing of an individual child by the group is another matter. Informal "trials" with passing of sentence have no doubt a training value in self-government, but there are distinct drawbacks, unless there be careful adult coaching and adult exercise of final authority.

Groups of children are apt to be fantastic and even cruel in parceling out punishments to individual children. (# 317)

On discussing with a group of the boys the proper punishment for one of the boys who deserved it, the group held almost unanimously to the decision: "Give him castor oil!", although the use of this household commodity is almost unknown at the institution. (# 72)

Either apart from or as part of self-government plans, it is well to leave avenues open for constructive or remedial suggestions by the children themselves or for consultations with the children themselves. The following is an illustration from one of our institutions in which no formal self-government plan is in existence.

In conversation with the superintendent or with the sisters, children often make good practical suggestions quite spontaneously. The superintendent makes a point of talking with and of eliciting suggestions from the children when they come together. The sisters, too, tell the superintendent of any worthwhile suggestion that comes from the children. (# 47)

In some of our institutions it is a recognized policy to get in touch with the natural leaders among the children or with the older and more trustworthy ones for the purpose of enlisting their counsel and cooperation in misbehavior emergencies or situations, or in working out constructive plans and policies. Such recognition of and active cooperation by the older more intelligent and more reliable children has been found to go far towards stimulating in them a deeper sense of initiative and group responsibility. "Honor" children are not necessarily leaders. Sometimes they are very undesirable types who have wormed their way into favor by skillful pretense of concern for the general interest. Sometimes they are just plain "snitchers", and dubbed such by the really honorable children. In this as in every other detail of child-training, clear judgment and clear insight are called for. Steering an airplane across the Atlantic is an easy task compared with training children to wing their flight across the treacherous expanse of childhood years.

4. POSSESSIONS AND PROPERTY

A proper attitude toward and use of money and other property is a basic need for everyone living in a culture so dominantly economic and industrial as our own. The child needs training both in his attitude towards the possessions of others and in regard to his

own possessions. Such training is very real practice in the proper fulfillment of one of the important responsibilities of life.

So far as the property of others is concerned, the institutional child needs to be trained to proper respect for the property both of the institution and of the other children therein. So far as his own possessions are concerned, he needs to be trained both in caring for his own personal property in kind and in handling his own money. The institutional child's relationship to the property of other children is dealt with under "Honesty" in the chapter on Moral Education. His care of his own possessions in kind is treated in the chapter on Mental Health under "Individualization". In the following pages we shall be concerned with his attitude towards institutional property and with his handling of his own money.

a. *Institutional Property.* Habits of carefulness or carelessness toward institutional property depend very largely on the whole spirit of loyalty and "our-own-ness" that prevails in the institution, a spirit that is manifestly the resultant of a great many factors, tangible and intangible. In the present section we shall touch upon only the more immediately practical measures of building up in the child a proper concern for institution property.

If waste of or damage to institutional property has been due to vandalism, wilfulness, or grossly culpable carelessness, it is advisable to impose proportional penalties on the children responsible for the damage or waste. Such penalties are most effective if they take the form of reparation for the damage, or, given the financial and other limitations of the children, some approximation to exact reparation. If the damage has been very great and the term of reparation at heavy sacrifice hangs over the child for a long period of months, it may be advisable to exercise a bit of leniency by "shortening the sentence" towards the end of the period of reparation, lest too much rigor overshoot the mark. Tempering justice with mercy is the counsel of both divine and human wisdom.

If the waste or damage has been due to thoughtlessness or to inculpable or only slightly culpable carelessness, perhaps the best method is to talk the matter over seriously with the child or children responsible. The following plan has been found very successful.

When some damage has been done to institutional property,

the superintendent or superior gives the children a talk on the cost of the repairs required, frequently using as an illustration to bring home to the children the seriousness of the damage, the number of baseballs or other play equipment that could be purchased with the money that has to be spent for the repairs. (# 88, # 67, # 124)

In all cases, an ounce of prevention is better than a pound of cure. In general, where the groups are smaller and furnishings more homelike, the task of training in respect for property is usually easier. Durability may be combined with beauty in such furnishings, and so help prevent breakage. The following excerpts offer some concrete practical suggestions along the line of prevention.

The older girls formerly took little care of their cotton stockings, but now take the greatest care of their silk ones. Much better care is now taken of the china and silver spoons and forks in the dining room than was formerly taken with cruder table ware. The general experience of the institution has been that if the children have good things, they will take care of them, whereas if they lack good things, they cannot easily be trained to carefulness. (# 68)

We have tried to give the most destructive children special charge of the things that had suffered most through their carelessness. We have found the plan very successful as a preventive of further damage. (# 13)

As a preventive and educative measure, there has been organized the "Custodians of the Buildings". He has to be an agile boy indeed who dares do damage to a room or to equipment in charge of another boy whose chief pride is in reporting that everything under his care is spick and span. (# 93)

b. *Money.* (1) *Earning.* If children are to learn how to use money, they must learn by handling real money of their own. A good many children in the average institution receive a little spending money from their relatives or friends. Some institutions make it a point to enlist the cooperation of relatives in providing the children with a little pocket money. Even though it is only five cents a week, an "allowance" from a relative means a great deal to a child,—more so usually than an allowance from institutional resources,—and helps keep alive family ties.

The amount, however, received from relatives and friends is commonly a meager one, and is apt to come in irregularly. Moreover, a certain proportion of the children receive nothing whatever from the outside. In view of this situation, a great many of our institutions have plans by which the children may earn or otherwise receive a certain amount of spending money.

Ordinarily the regular chores or household tasks assigned to the children are not paid for. The performance of such tasks is in the normal family taken for granted, and rightly, as the child's just and proportional share in the overhead of family life. Paying for every little chore done tends to make payment the equivalent of a bribe for the performance of tasks which should be performed for higher and better motives.

On the other hand, money payments for *extra duties* over and above the routine ones, do not appear to be open to the foregoing objection. Such rewards for extra duties are commonplaces in family life. They, moreover, provide almost the only means the average institutional child has for earning money. The amount given should naturally depend upon the nature of the duty performed and upon the resources of the institution. The following are some illustrations of actual practice.

For extra duties a boy receives 25c. a duty (# 27) or enough to buy an ice-cream cone or other treat. (# 121)

During the summer time the superior allowed the girls to wash, paint and enamel the beds, paying them at the rate of 25c. a bed. Some of the girls earned up to five dollars and more through their summer work as amateur painters. (# 11)

The boys in summer often serve as helpers to the institution carpenters, receiving therefor payment at the rate of 25c. a day. (# 66)

In some of the institutions a somewhat different plan is used, payment and rate thereof depending on good records and conduct rather than on performance of extra duties. This plan is roughly equivalent to the "allowances" given children in many family homes.

Every week the children are ranked in order "A", "B", and "C" according to their records of merit for the week. The

"A" group who have done particularly well receive a 15c. allowance; the "B" group who have done well receive a 10c. one; the "C" group who have done poorly receive a 5c. one. The children are ranked according to behavior, school work and other work. They may spend this money for anything they wish, not however until they have a small savings balance. (# 31)

In one of the institutions that has worked out a splendid system of vocational training there prevails a very successful plan of premiums and savings allowances for the senior children, that is, children, both boys and girls, who have finished the eighth grade at school and are learning a trade in the institution's trade school. These premiums and allowances are quite distinct from wages given to the older boys and girls who have already learned their trade and who work in the institution shops while still living at the institution.

Each child has a *premium* card of the folder type with his or her name and department written on it. Each week his good points for the week are totaled, the amount of his premium estimated, and the card returned to the child. The premium amounts are determined by sections. The first year in the trade school which is called Section I, a child is allowed a cent a point up to 10c. If he makes only nine points he receives only 9c. a week. If he makes twelve points he is credited with only 10c.; but these extra points, over and above the first ten, are kept account of until they amount to five hundred, and then the child is entitled to an extra 10c. premium a week and is promoted to Section II. After this, his extra points are again added up and each five hundred points entitles him to an additional premium of 10c. a week. He receives points or marks on his grading in his cottage home, in the trade shop, and in the night school. The child may keep this money on deposit at the institution or he may draw it to spend.

In addition to this premium each senior child receives a definite allowance or "wage" which is known as the savings account. While the boy is working in Section I, mentioned above, which is usually during his first year in the training school, he receives no wage over and above the premium. If he remains in the school after he has attained his first five-hundred mark, he is then, on promotion to Section II, given

\$1.00 a week as a sort of wage which is put away for him in the savings bank. When he reaches his second five-hundred mark, an additional 50c. a week, over and above the dollar, is placed to his credit in the savings bank.

Thus a boy who has earned a thousand points in all is in Section III and is entitled to 30c. a week premium in addition to the \$1.50 a week placed to his credit in the bank as wages. He may draw his premium for spending money, but his "wages" deposited to his credit in the savings bank may not be drawn or spent. They accumulate in the bank and are handed over to him when he leaves the institution. (# 14)

The special problem of those children who have no relatives or friends from whom they receive any spending money at all is commonly solved by the following simple plan. The children who have no relatives or friends are the ones more frequently chosen to do the extra chores for which a little payment is given. The child, of course, is not told that he is being chosen on this account.

It is a common practice to give a fixed monthly or weekly wage to older children who have practically graduated from the institution though still making their home there and who take a rather large part, over and above ordinary chores, in the institutional work. This plan, however, is more a matter of employment than of training power. It has or can be made to have certain values. Two cautions are suggested. First, so far as possible, the work assigned should be such as will give definite vocational training and so prepare the child for self-support in other than underpaid "blind-alley" jobs. Secondly, the moral obligation of giving a living wage for services rendered on an employment basis rests on institutional as on individual employers. It is conservatively estimated that a minimum subsistence wage for a single person in cities of fair size is at least \$15.00 a week under our present (1929) American economic conditions. Of this amount about three-fifths to two-thirds goes for board and lodging, allowing two-fifths to one-third for clothing and other necessary expenses. The general problem of wages will be dealt with in detail in the chapter on Administration and Finance. It is merely touched upon here in passing.

In at least one institution, older boys and sometimes older girls, of high school age, earn money on the outside. Regard has, of

course, to be had in such cases for local child-labor laws. The plan has worked very satisfactorily in this particular institution and has raised no problems. It has had decided advantages in giving the children a chance to earn spending money, to have real business experience, to try out what work they have a liking or aptitude for, to give them helpful outside contacts, and to make them at home in the world into which they are soon to graduate.

A number of the boys earn money in the summer time gathering huckleberries. Nearly all the high school children work on Saturdays or after school in the afternoon on school days. One of the high school girls in the senior class works every Saturday afternoon in the Five and Ten Cent Store, earning \$2.25 each Saturday. One of the boys works in a grocery store on afternoons and on Saturday evenings, earning \$8.00 a week. Another high school boy, a junior, works in a clothing store Saturday afternoons and Friday and Saturday evenings, earning \$4.00 a week. One of the boys who graduated last year worked in a grocery store during his entire four years of high school. (# 27)

In addition to institution store profits to be mentioned below, two other somewhat exceptional methods of earning money are the following:

The girls' club issues a monthly mimeographed paper called "Our Broadcaster". It is sold on the outside. Subscriptions to it help pay for club entertainments, outings, and so forth. (# 55)

Some of the boys are assigned garden plots on which they raise roses for the beautification and financial assistance of the institution. The more roses they raise, the greater is the income therefrom and the larger is the share of the boys in the profits from the sale of the roses. This "profit-sharing" plan is working well. (# 54)

(2) *Saving.* A great many of our institutions provide for and encourage savings accounts by the children either in an institution bank or savings system or else in an outside bank. Probably all things considered, where circumstances permit, depositing in an outside bank is preferable as it gives the child a better sense of the reality

of savings and bank systems and brings him into contact with the outside financial world. The following illustrations contain some practical suggestions as to methods.

Savings are deposited in an outside bank. There is no minimum amount required to start an account, but the children usually start with \$5.00. They are advised to save at least half of their earnings or as much as possible. They are not obliged to follow this advice, but they seldom fail to do so. They are quite free to make deposits or withdrawals, usually however in case of withdrawals explaining why the cash is needed. If the need is legitimate, ready approval is given, and, in any case, if the child insists, withdrawal of funds in part or in whole is permitted. If a child is dependable, he is permitted to go to the bank and make his deposits personally, but more commonly the deposits are taken to the bank in a lump. If given children are known at the bank, they often make deposits there both for themselves and for other children. Practically every child makes trips personally at one time or another to the bank. (# 68)

Bank books are made out to the children individually unless the children's parents are not trustworthy, in which latter case the books are made out to the sister in trust for the children. (# 11; in trust for all children, # 112)

Saving should ordinarily be voluntary. Obligatory saving is less apt to develop far-sighted thrift. The unwisdom of not saving will be brought home to the child when his more thrifty playmate is enabled to purchase desired articles which he must forego on account of his failure to look ahead. The habit of saving, short however of mere hoarding, is particularly necessary for institutional children who are deprived of the training in financial values, that the child at home may get from careful and thrifty parents.

(3) *Spending.* While it is certainly valuable to train the child to save, on the one hand he should not be trained to be a miser and on the other hand he should have practice in spending wisely. Spending wisely and discriminately is itself a training in thrift. There is much wisdom in the following plan:

Children are allowed to go to the city to spend any money which may be given them. The younger children go accom-

panied either by one of the sisters or one of the older girls, and are allowed, if the mistake be not too serious, to buy the wrong thing and to regret their purchase. The next time they will buy more sensibly. (# 48)

A good many of our institutions have institution *stores*. Other institutions feel quite strongly that it is much more desirable to have the children make their purchases at outside stores.

There used to be an institution store but the superior believes the children too often look upon such a store as make-believe and lose interest in it. Moreover, an institution store lessens the opportunity of the children to buy on the outside, and ordinarily provides a more limited range of choice in purchase. (# 7)

Candy is sold in the institution for the smaller children, but almost all of the children prefer to make their purchases outside, and even the smaller children often get the older ones to take them to the outside stores. (# 27)

The superior does not believe in an institution store as she feels that while it may be to the financial advantage of the children it cuts down somewhat the opportunities for freedom and the exercise of discrimination in purchasing. (# 46)

The institution formerly had quite an elaborate store system. But its maintenance called for a great deal of labor and the children preferred to buy from outside stores. (# 67)

On the other hand a great many of our institutions maintain the institution store and find from their experience that it can be used to serve either in training the children, or in helping them to earn money, or in both.

The store has an important part in the lives of the children, supplying them with what they crave and giving them practice in buying, selling, saving, and conducting business. The eighth grade girls manage the store. The children are limited to 5c. in purchases a day, and to 10c. on Sundays. The store has a large glass showcase and also wall shelves. The case protects the candy from dust and enables the children to have a full view of the quite varied stock. The wall shelves contain a supply of dolls, doll furniture, balls, hair-fasteners,

handkerchiefs, and many novelties at various prices. The sister's idea in having a large assortment is to create in the child a desire to save pennies to buy something other than candy. The candy stock was first purchased with \$10.00 borrowed from the sister. The eighth grade girls managing the store now have a savings and commercial account at a city bank in the name of the "Children of St. X", the sister superior acting as trustee. All bills are paid each month. The profits are put into the savings account after the supplies for the coming month are purchased. These profits average about thirty-seven per cent or from about \$15.00 to \$20.00 a month. The girls make contributions from the profits to various causes,—such as to the Community Chest campaign, and to the foreign missions. They have also purchased from their profits a motion-picture machine and screen. A bookkeeper is appointed whose duty it is to keep account of the money each child places on credit. If, for instance, a child wants to buy 25c. worth of candy and the storekeeper is doubtful if the child has that much to her credit, the child's balance will first be looked up before the sale is made. There is a small blackboard upon which the children may write the names of special kinds of candies they would like. (# 81)

From the profits of the boys' store, all athletic togs needed for the boys have been supplied and even a pool-table purchased. From the profits of the smaller candy store for the girls, special treats and play supplies for the girls are bought. (# 97)

At the outset, six months ago, \$60.00 were advanced by the superior to purchase stock for the store. There are two storekeepers chosen from the younger group. Store goods are bought wholesale by these two girls under the supervision of the sister. Profits for a time went to pay back the original \$60.00 loan, but now go toward a pleasure fund. A committee on store, composed of members of the school club, makes a report every month on the progress of the store and the club decides how the money will be spent. The store now has \$45.00 in the bank representing a six month's profit over and above the repayment of the original \$60.00 loan. The money was formerly deposited in a bank that allowed four and a half per cent interest. The girls discovered that they could get six per cent at another bank, so the matter was

taken up at a club meeting and it was decided to transfer the account to this other bank. (# 55)

The older children spend their money largely at the village store or go to town to shop. But there is an institution store open after school daily and on Sunday afternoons in which are sold candy, toys, religious articles, and so forth. A couple of boys and girls help at the store. Fancy work, embroidery, paper flowers, and other things made by the children are sold on Sunday afternoons to outside visitors. The profits of the sales have been used to purchase various things for the dining room, such as statues, window boxes, and so forth. (# 68)

d. *Giving*. The whole law of charity as distinct from strict justice, may be summed up in the precept: Those who have shall share. Generosity in sharing what we have with those who have not, is as understood in its widest sense, one of the twin pillars of the Christian ideal of life. The most common manifestation of charity on the child's level is generosity in sharing his toys, food, delicacies, and other treasured goods with other children. The tradition of sharing is worth nurturing. It is well, too, to do all that is reasonably possible under local institutional conditions to encourage the children to share some of their spending money with those less fortunate. Such sharing or giving may be done quite informally, as is done, for example, when one child "treats" another at a store or candy counter. It may be done in more formal ways through individual or joint contributions of occasional pennies or nickels to religious, missionary, charitable or other worthy causes. Illustrations of various types of sharing, whether of money or of goods, are given currently in several parts of the present Manual and need not be repeated here. It may merely be added that the child should learn that what he gives he should give intelligently, discriminately, generously but not extravagantly, and from unselfish motives.

(5) *Budget Plans*. There appears to be a growing interest, as manifested both by expressed view and by actual practice, among our institution staffs in budget plans, particularly as regards the selection and purchase of clothing. Under such plans, a fixed allowance is granted, usually to the older children rather than to the very young, and within this allowance it is up to the child to make the selection and purchase of his clothing himself. He must also plan his budget

and see that he lives within it. Where the institution is conducted on a cottage or group system, a cottage or group budget plan can be put into operation, as has, for instance, been done with encouraging success at Carson College. Joint planning of expenditures and joint savings for things desired give excellent training opportunities for all the children of the cottage or group. The following are illustrations of outright or modified budget systems in our institutions.

The older boys are put on a clothing budget and told to buy their own clothing. When they go into the city to purchase the clothing, the store to which they are going is phoned to, unknown to the boy, and is asked to assist the boy, who is on his way, in order that he may buy wisely. (# 54)

The institution school has ten grades. After this the girls go out to the Catholic high school. When the institution girls graduate they fall in line with the other girls of the class by having their photographs taken, by purchasing the year book, and by getting appropriate graduation dresses. For the last they are allowed a financial outlay equal to that of the other girls of their class, and they must select their own clothing. These senior girls are also granted an allowance for spending money and an educational savings allowance which goes toward their higher education. (# 22)

Graduating into Self-support. A great deal can be and is done in our institutions toward training in the handling of money when older children are making the transition, on leaving the institution, to complete self-support in the world. The following illustrations contain excellent practical suggestions.

When a boy is sixteen or over, suitable work is found for him in town. He is allowed to board and lodge temporarily at the school, and is put on an honor system as regards discipline. When he brings home his first week's wages the brother in charge helps him to make out an itemized budget, including such headings as board, clothing, savings, church collection, and pocket money. Week after week the brother and the boy have a friendly talk every Sunday morning, the brother coaching and counseling the boy in the budgeting and expenditure of his weekly wages. Ordinarily the boy soon acquires an excellent sense of responsibility. (# 45)

All expenses incurred by the girls for their higher education, over and above the tenth grade are charged up to their respective accounts. When the girl is about to graduate from the institution, this account is explained to her and she is told that if at any time in the future she can in part or in whole repay this amount of money to the institution, it would be well for her to do so. It is made clear, however, that there is no compulsion in the matter and that she must not let herself worry about it. This is and must be made doubly clear, lest conscientious girls, going out as they ordinarily must into positions paying barely a living wage or often much less, deprive themselves of real necessities of food or medical or dental care to repay or make contributions. The plan is used as a reminder to the girl that she cannot expect to go out into the world and have things handed to her as she has had things handed to her in the institution. The superior feels that children in an institution are apt to get things too easily and that generally they are not informed regarding the responsibility and struggle involved in economic life and living on the outside. (# 22)

REFERENCES

Excellent short treatments of principles and practices in discipline and related problems are given by Sr. M. Simplicita in *Proc. Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1926, 410-11; by Sr. M. Loyola, *ibid.*, 417-18; by Sr. M. Benedict and Sr. Charita, *ibid.*, 1923, 304-7. See also art, "Aids to discipline," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Apr. 1926, x, 142-44, giving a number of concrete suggestions from prevalent practices in various Catholic institutions. For a detailed longer outline of principles and suggestions regarding punishments see: Reeder, *How two hundred children live and learn*, ch. vi. For same regarding rewards as well as punishments, see: Goldrich, *Manual for cottage mothers*, 121-34. Very balanced summary of principles regarding discipline, individual responsibility, and self-government, in U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, *Handbook*, 1927, 81-86. Concrete details on self-government plans: in *120th Rpt. Orphan asylum society in the city of N. Y.*, 1926, 11-13, and in Goldrich, *l. c.*, 25-32, 94-99. On allowances and budget plan, see mimeo, Ueland, *Use of money at Carson college*, 1-3.

CHAPTER IV

MENTAL HEALTH

The Problem. The value of a healthy mind in a healthy body has always been accepted by Catholic educators as a matter of course. The current emphasis upon mental and physical health is reaffirming the importance of soundness both of body and mind. It has also given us much light upon the factors that produce health of body and mind, upon the methods by which such health may be promoted and safeguarded.

Child life, like adult life, is not lived in separate compartments or pigeonholes. Physical, intellectual, and emotional activities,—and, for that matter, all other activities,—are intimately linked together and constantly interact one upon the other. One can, it is true, have physical health yet be intellectually and emotionally ill, and, vice versa, one may be intellectually sound and emotionally balanced and yet suffer from physical maladies. More commonly, however, physical conditions affect for weal or woe intellectual and emotional life, and intellectual and emotional conditions similarly affect physical life. Not only are these three phases of life interdependent and interacting, but all three of them have great influence upon moral and spiritual behavior. Abnormal physical conditions are common remote or proximate occasions of sin. Abnormal intellectual and emotional conditions are still more common remote or proximate occasions. Moreover such abnormal physical, intellectual and emotional conditions affect adversely, in greater or lesser measure according to circumstances, the welfare and happiness of the individual as well as of the group of which the individual is a member.

In the present chapter we shall consider those phases of emotional and intellectual health which have a particular importance for the institutional child. The two following chapters will be devoted to the problem of physical health for the institutional child.

All of us, children and adults, feel within us the urge of many cravings, some of them rooted at least in inherited instincts, others more the result of education and environment. Among the basic

cravings or desires are three that are particularly significant for the mental health of the institutional child. These are:

- a. the craving for affection, love, response, sympathy, understanding;
- b. the craving for recognition, respect, status, standing, success;
- c. the craving for adventure, change, surprise, "thrill", freedom, independence, initiative.

An adult may from his spiritual motives deliberately sacrifice the satisfactions that come from the fulfillment of these very human and universal cravings, or he may from the same high spiritual motives sublimate them. But in the average person's life, particularly in the average child's life, if these cravings are denied reasonable satisfaction, or if their normal fulfillment is blocked, there easily and often arise mental conflicts that produce tension, uneasiness, feelings of inferiority, unhappiness and discontent, and that frequently lead to grave physical, moral and religious failure or disaster.

If his home be a good one, the child's basic cravings tend to be satisfied in greater or lesser measure without extraordinary deliberate planning on the part of parents, although, of course, even in the home mental conflicts are common enough in children. In the institution, however, it is more difficult to provide suitable satisfactions for such cravings, and by the circumstances of the case the hazard of such mental conflicts is very much greater than in the home. The institutional child can easily be lost in the crowd, become part, as it were, of the vast machinery of the institution, and both fail of receiving individual recognition and fall short of acquiring individual status and success. He can likewise easily become undernourished and starved emotionally for want of individual affection, love and understanding. He can be caught in the unending monotony and routine of daily rules and bells and duties. When these things happen to him, we say he becomes "institutionalized". It is questionable whether even the most successful institution can ever completely and adequately meet those emotional and affective needs of the child. But a good institutional program can, at least in large measure, meet such needs and forestall such hazards, provided special pains be taken through wise, kindly and deliberate planning.

In the following pages we shall not attempt to deal with the

whole field of mental hygiene. Some sections of it have been covered in the chapters of Discipline and Moral Training. We shall take up first, the emotional needs for recognition and affection, together with the key emotional problems of fear and anger; secondly the problem of the mentally handicapped and of the gifted child.

EMOTIONAL HEALTH

The emotional needs of the child are of course many. We are here singling out the three which would appear of primary importance in the shaping of institutional programs. Of these three,—the need for recognition, the need for affection, and the need for adventure,—the third is largely a recreational problem and will be outlined in some detail in the chapter on Recreation. The great amount of space given here to the need of recognition should not be taken as necessarily implying that this is the most important of these three needs. It may be so, but the craving for affection is extremely important too, and perhaps more important.

I. THE CRAVING FOR RECOGNITION

It is a normal human trait to desire to be somebody, to count among one's fellows and to be recognized as good for something in this world. The craving is a perfectly natural one and is probably inborn and instinctive, although the exact form or shape that it takes is largely a matter of environment and education. If it fails of being fulfilled in the child's life, a situation arises under which he finds it hard to bear up. He may then consciously or unconsciously attempt to relieve the situation in any one of many ways.

a. *Flight from Reality.* He may admit his failure, tend to brood upon it, and acquire an inferiority attitude. In consequence of this, he may crawl into his own shell, avoid the companionship of his fellows, and develop a shut-in personality. Or he may seek compensation in solitude, in negativism, in day-dreaming, in over-attention to books, or in kindred reactions. He may go to the extreme limit of so retreating from the real world in which he is as to build up a world of fantasy of his own in which he lives and moves and tries to get his standing and self-recognition. Again, instead of developing an inferiority feeling, he may keep his self-esteem by persuading himself that others are down on him and unfair to him, and

may so develop a persecution complex or a grudge attitude towards others. Or he may try to convince himself that the good will and good opinion of others are not worth while after all, and so he may take to criticizing, disparaging, and minimizing them in thought and word.

All of these reactions have one thing in common. They constitute a flight from reality, a retreat from life, a failure to face the real battles and struggles of life. They are unhealthy mental reactions. They may easily lead, not merely to queer behavior, but to one or more of a score of types of unsocial or sinful behavior.

The treatment in some of these cases may and should entail appeal to the services of a professional psychiatrist. In the more common and simpler cases, however, this is not necessary. Since the reaction is apt to take any one of many different forms, treatment will naturally differ from case to case, according to the particular reaction in the particular child. Some general suggestions however apply to all or pretty nearly all cases of the kind. The following are three key suggestions :

- (1) Study the child to discover his real abilities and aptitudes, particularly such as will obtain recognition from those around him. Having discovered these, select one or more of them, stimulate the child to develop them, and see that he gets recognition for his achievements along these lines, either from his superiors or from his mates, or, better, from both. Other things being equal, recognition from his mates is ordinarily better than recognition from those above him. There are few children, however dull and handicapped, but have some possibilities of achievement along one line or another. Build up his self-respect gradually. Make sure that the first tasks he attempts are within his ability to accomplish. As his sense of achievement grows stronger through success attained in simpler projects, preferably of his own choosing, encourage him in tasks that will be more of a real challenge to him. In all cases make sure that the project undertaken is within his ability and that there is reasonable certainty of it being accomplished. If failure to achieve is due not to lack of

ability but to lack of effort or to what we have in another chapter called, for want of a better name, laziness, then it becomes necessary to discover and to treat the factors which lie back of the laziness itself.

- (2) Steps may often have to be taken to modify, so far as possible, the attitude to the child of those around him. On the negative side, it is frequently necessary and possible to reduce or to eradicate the nagging, teasing, disparaging or contemning attitude expressed in word or action toward the child by his mates or superiors. Speaking of, or revealing a child's or his family's failing to stranger or visitor in the presence of the child would in all cases, of course, be an inexcusable breach of charity and courtesy. Moreover, it would tend to cause discouragement and inferiority feelings or else to arouse sullen resentment or rebellion. It would be acutely harmful to the child already suffering from discouragement and the sense of inferiority. No less deadly would be the emphasizing of the peculiarities of the queer child in presence of strangers or of other children. On the positive side, it is always possible to stimulate the child to self-respect through honest achievement, by encouragement in and by discreet recognition and praise for such success as he actually attains. Where the superintendent and the staff have an enthusiastic pride in their children and in the institution, they will find many ways to inspire the children with the same proper pride and self-respect. Raising school spirit to high pitch in outside games, contests, concerts, and so forth is one of the most obvious ways.
- (3) Ordinarily it is advisable, according to circumstances, to give the child some insight into what is happening in his own life and in his own mental reactions to life. He should be helped to see that he is running away from his own problems and from reality, and to understand that he is expected to overcome obstacles, to conquer difficulties, to face the battle of life courageously and to win with the weapons he has. All this means, of course, individual attention.

Closely related to the flight from reality and to the feeling of inferiority both in its inner nature and in its effects is the institutional child's feeling of being "different" from other children. By the very conditions of institutional life, a child is to a certain extent set apart from other children and secluded from the outside world. He tends to think of himself as different from other children outside and in so far is apt to develop more or less a sense of inferiority or at least of strangeness. It is of supreme importance that the child in the institution be granted the maximum of personal contact with the outside world that is consistent with the limitations of the institution as such, and that such differences between the child within the institution and children outside be reduced to a minimum. Methods of providing adequate contact with the outside world have been touched upon in the chapter on Discipline and Freedom and will be further stressed in the chapters on Education and Recreation. Methods of reducing somewhat the differences that prevail between institutional and non-institutional children are treated in the following section of the present chapter under the more inclusive title of individualization.

b. *Individualization.* In the family home, where there are but few children, the child not only ordinarily receives more individual care and training, but also is more apt to receive individual recognition, understanding and affection. In the institution, on the other hand, where large numbers of children are gathered together, even though they be broken up into smaller units under cottage or group systems, there is an initial hazard that he will be lost in the crowd, swamped by numbers, sunk in the mass. From the standpoint of moral and religious training, emphasis has already been given to the importance of individual treatment of the individual child. Such individualization should be a primary goal in every phase of the institutional program. It should, of course, be a first consideration in all plans of safeguarding the child's physical health and particularly his mental health. As regards this last, some of the more obvious and tangible methods are the following:

(1) *Clothing.* The drift in our Catholic institutions is decidedly away from the use of uniforms for the children. In fact, among the institutions studied the use of uniforms is so exceptional as to be almost non-existent, and even in the exceptional cases the uniform is used more under restricted circumstances, such as in chapel

and in the class room, and not when the children go outside the institutional grounds. A practice which, like wearing uniforms, may be excellent in day-schools and boarding schools, may, on account of the different conditions, be very inadvisable in child-caring homes. Some of the more important considerations that have led to the widespread abandonment of uniforms in institutions are given in the excerpts below. There is also a very noticeable preference for ready-made or store clothing over clothing made within the institution. This, of course, does not mean that there prevails a rigid ban on all home-made clothing, if made well and in style. (On this point see further details in chapter on Physical Care.)

The children do not wear uniforms. The superior does not believe in them. She feels that they institutionalize the children (# 50), and make them feel their position too much (# 124).

Clothing for the children is to a large extent bought ready-made, although some of the dresses are made at the house under the supervision of the sewing teacher. The Sister Superior believes that the children in an institution should not be subjected either to uniforms or to home-made clothes; that unless clothing is very expertly made in the home it lacks the style and finish of ready-made clothing; that the institutional child should be made to feel as much as possible like other children outside. (# 22)

The Sister Superior does not believe in home-made outer garments for the child, as, unless made well and in style, they detract from the child's self-respect. Such garments are purchased and the children are allowed to make their own selections. If money for clothing is provided by parents or friends the child is taken personally to a shop in the city and is permitted to select whatever he or she prefers, provided the clothing is serviceable and looks well. (# 25)

The children should be given freedom, as suggested in this last excerpt, to the utmost possible under the circumstances of the particular institution, to make their own choice of clothing. A price limit, uniform for given age or similar groups, must, of course, be set. This principle is quite well recognized and ordinarily carried out, as illustrated in the following examples.

The older children are allowed to select their own clothes as far as possible. They go shopping with the sister and are consulted regarding colors, materials, and so forth. (# 29; # 124)

The older girls are taken shopping with the sister and select material for their dresses which they later make under coaching of the sister. (# 8, an Indian school)

To safeguard the individuality of the child as much as possible, the sister finds it helpful, where purchase of clothes is contemplated, to talk over the matter with the child, to discuss styles, and to watch and train the child to watch the advertisements. The sister will then accompany the child to the store, the latter being allowed to make her own selection. In the case of girls who lack the ability to select with reasonable judgment, the sister may suggest to the girl, "I think that would be more becoming to you", but she leaves the child's actual selection free. (# 39)

The high school girls make their own skirts. All the girls in the senior group buy their own coats, hats and shoes. Older girls should shop without a sister. Mistakes teach them. Younger children are sometimes permitted to buy theirs under the supervision of a sister. All styles of shoes are worn. Girls in the high school are permitted to wear high heels if they want to. (# 55)

Coats, hats, shoes and some underwear are purchased ready-made, the child being allowed to select what she prefers. (# 64; # 112)

If a boy needs a new suit, he gets a requisition for it through his cottage mother and then goes to the storeroom and chooses from a selection of different colors, materials, and styles of suits on the stacks, the one he prefers. (# 66)

Older girls go shopping with the sister but select their own clothing. Usually they are encouraged to select clothing which is conservative and, at the same time, in style; but if any girl sets her heart upon a dress not entirely approved by the sister she will ordinarily be permitted to purchase it, and if it proves too ultra the girl will thus learn by her own mistakes and actual experience. Smaller girls may select their own dresses from numbers of garments of different styles purchased for their departments. (# 88)

In one institution a type of style show is held which further emphasizes individuality in taste and in choice of clothing.

Trips are made to the nearby metropolis in the spring and in the fall to purchase new supplies of dresses, hats and coats. When these arrive, a style show is held at the institution. The sisters and girls get together and different children display the clothing. Everything possible is done to develop the children's taste and judgment in choice and to have the children wear becoming clothes. Sometimes at the style show itself the children are let decide who is to have certain coats and dresses. (# 27)

The custom generally prevails and should prevail *for each child to have his or her own clothing.*

(2) *Hair Cuts.* The more general tendency is to allow children to have their hair cut *according to the style they prefer.* This may seem a trivial matter, but choice in hair cuts helps appreciably to enhance and preserve the child's individuality. In most institutions the hair cutting is done at the institution, but some of the institutions are finding it advisable,—in order to leave the children fuller choice, to put them on a level with other children, and to accustom them to further contact with the outside world,—to have the children go out for their hair cuts to nearby barber shops. Where hair cutting is done in the institution, the introduction of electric clippers has found favor as a valuable labor-saving device. The following are selected illustrations.

The hair cutting is done by the sister with an electric hair-clipper. The sisters are very much interested in seeing that the boys have their hair cut to their own taste, if it is not too extreme. (# 20)

The sisters cut the children's hair, using an electric clipper which has proven a great labor-saving device. The older boys however go out to a barber. Formerly a barber used to come regularly to the institution. He taught one of the sisters how to bob hair and she has acquired professional skill at the task. The girls are permitted any style bob that they wish. (# 27)

Hair cutting is done with an electric clipper by one of the sisters, according to the taste of the child. (# 30)

Some of the older girls are expert hair cutters, and earn money by cutting the hair of the younger girls. (# 55)

We use an electric clipper, but the older children go out to a barber or else we have him come to the home. (# 109)

For hair cuts the children go to the barber shop. (# 79)

The children are allowed to have their hair cut as they prefer. Regarding both clothing and hair cutting, the superintendent and sisters are anxious to have the children feel that they are not different from children in the outside world so far as style is concerned. (# 14; # 124)

(3) *Individual Possessions.* It is the better and prevalent custom not only to allow but very definitely to encourage the child in having his or her own individual possessions,—not only clothing, but also books, toys, trinkets, miscellaneous “junk” and other things the normal child mysteriously accumulates and tenaciously clings to. The following is an illustration.

Each child has its own possessions such as clothing, books, games, trinkets, needle work, money, and so forth. And each one has its own individual place to keep these things. All children are taught respect for the personal possessions of other children. All the children receive gifts at Christmas and on other occasions, but effort is made to get for each child what he individually craves. Some children have roller skates, some ice skates, some sleds, some dolls, some other toys, as they prefer. All clothing is plainly marked for each child as are also each child's towels, wash cloths, and napkins. (# 88)

(4) *Lockers.* Individual locker space for both clothing and for the storing of prized personal possessions is universally recognized as a desideratum. Not only does it help to preserve the child's individuality and to break down both the communism in property and the mass regimentation that are institutional hazards, but also locker space for trinkets, collections, and sundry “junk” is something dear to the heart of the average child, and pockets, however capacious, do not provide satisfactory parking facilities.

Each child has two lockers. One is located in the wash room, with an upper section for towels and toilet articles and a

lower section for playthings and junk. The other, in the dormitory, is used for individual clothing, including underwear. (# 27)

Each boy has the following locker space. He has his own personal locker, carrying his name, for storing his prized treasures. His play shoes are kept in open cupboards with sections large enough to contain one pair of shoes each; gym shoes are kept in similar receptacles just inside the entrance to the gym. Sunday clothes are kept in a special room, each boy having a locker with glass doors. Each boy has three pairs of shoes: Oxfords for house wear, play shoes, and gum shoes. Each boy is also given three full sets of clothing. (# 36)

Each child has two lockers. Toys are kept in the lockers in the play room. In the clothing lockers, coats are hung on hangers, and these on iron rods. (# 124)

Children have individual lockers for hanging clothes and each locker is equipped with drawers and shelves for small things. In the new steel lockers there is also a space for hats. In the older building a great many of the lockers are of substantial oak built into the walls but divided into individual spaces. (# 14)

Each boy has three lockers, one in the basement for junk, one on the first floor for clothing, and an open doorless locker on the second floor for toilet articles, pajamas, and so forth. (# 66)

Each older child down to about the fourth and fifth grade has an individual locker. In the boys' building each boy has his own locker in the dormitory and each of the big boys from about the age of fourteen keeps his own key to the padlock on his locker. There has been only a negligible loss of keys, averaging about one a month among about forty boys. The boys have free access to their individual lockers any time of the day or night. Inspection takes place from time to time for general purposes and for contraband such as cigarettes. (# 68)

Each child has his or her individual locker. Some of the lockers are of steel; some, of wood. (# 70)

The provision for individual lockers is as follows:

- (a) Both boys and girls have lockers in the basement for their outdoor clothing. These lockers are conveniently located for the children coming in from school or from the playground.
 - (b) Each child has a good-sized section in the clothing room, adjoining the group's living room, for waists, underwear, stockings and so forth. The larger girls have special locker sections for these articles.
 - (c) Each child has locker space in the living room for toys, sweaters, and individual possessions.
 - (d) Smaller children's groups have bars upon which their dresses and suits are hung on hangers. These are covered with a curtain to keep out the dust. The larger girls have special locker sections for their dresses.
 - (e) Each group has a closet adjoining its living quarters with subdivisions for each child's shoes. This has been found very helpful as it keeps shoes separate, prevents confusion, and also prevents other clothing from being permeated with the odor of shoes.
- (# 88)

It may be added that while the steel lockers are in more common use, a good deal is to be said in favor of the built-in wooden ones as being less institutional in appearance. After all, in our own homes we do not use steel lockers, but moveable wardrobes and bureaus or built-in cupboards. The matter is one of detail only, but it is upon the accumulation of such details that individualization in its more material and tangible phases is constructed.

(5) *Decorations.* It is not always possible to give the children freedom to arrange decorations in their dining rooms, living rooms, and sleeping quarters. Where, however, it is possible and in so far as it is possible, it is conducive both to individualization and to training in good taste to allow them a measure of choice and selection in such matters. It also helps them to learn how to make home attractive at a minimum cost.

In each group or cottage the children make their suggestions about window drapes, table covers, and floor covering. They may have the kinds of plants they like. They may also have their dining rooms correspond to their living rooms as regards

drapes, flowers, pictures, birds, aquariums, table decorations, and so forth. Of course, such choice is limited somewhat by the finances and other resources of the institution, but the maximum freedom of choice is granted the children, particularly where artistic taste may be evidenced or encouraged. (# 14)

(6) *Birthday Parties.* A birthday party is a real event in the life of the average child. It enhances his sense of individuality; it gives him a certain standing and recognition; it gives likewise a touch of adventure, change and thrill. Where possible the children's birthdays should be celebrated in one form or another. If the institution is a large one, it may not be possible to celebrate each individual child's birthday. Many institutions meet this situation by having monthly birthday parties for all the children whose birthday falls in that month. The following are some of the plans that are working out successfully in practice.

All of the children having birthdays within a month celebrate their birthdays at one large party. One of these parties took place while the study of the institution was being made. The visitor was invited as a guest. A large table was set in one of the living rooms. The table was covered with a white damask cloth, and there was a centerpiece of pink roses. There were place-cards and pink baskets with candies, both the cards and baskets having been made by the children themselves. The refreshments served included chicken sandwiches, chocolate ice-cream, and a large birthday cake with sixteen candles representing the number of girls whose birthday it was. The party began at 7:30 in the evening. The older girls served, no sisters being present. The Superior joined the party when the games started. The children proved very gracious hostesses to the visitor. The children sang, some recited, and one gave an after-dinner speech. After the party there was a donkey game, and also dancing to the victrola. (# 11)

Monthly birthday parties are held for all whose birthdays fall in the month. Children whose birthday cannot be discovered are given a month. (# 9)

The boys have birthday parties from time to time. The

living rooms and dining rooms are decorated for the occasion by the boys who give the party. (# 20)

The birthdays occurring in the current month are celebrated on one selected day for all the children born in that month. A child is never overlooked. Special decorations and cakes are provided. (# 81)

Individual birthday parties were found to occur too frequently, so a plan was devised whereby three or four general parties are given each year. These are made rather elaborate occasions; the group that has a party invites the other groups. These parties are managed largely by the girls themselves, the sisters helping the hostesses to receive their guests. (# 22)

The supervisor sends a birthday card and a small inexpensive gift to the child on its birthday. The card is signed by him and has a simple individual comment. (# 320)

Each child receives on her birthday a present from the local Catholic Ladies' Club. (# 83)

Name days are celebrated. On feast days of the saints, every boy whose name is that of the saint is given a little celebration. (# 72)

(7) *Cubicles.* Nobody envies the goldfish. One of the most important intangible factors in the attraction of home life is its privacy. Be home ever so humble, it is a refuge from the outside world. It may be a poor thing, but, if it be one's own, it is a retreat from the group, a welcome shelter from intrusion, and a potent builder of the sense of individuality. The need for such privacy may not be keenly felt by the younger child, but the older child both appreciates it and profits by it. The small dormitory or cubicle as a means of providing a measure of privacy is well worth while, where practicable, for older children particularly.

In the summer home of the institution, the older girls have individual cubicles. (# 22)

Each boy of high-school age has his own separate room. (# 29)

The Junior High group occupy a curtained dormitory and take unusual pride in caring for their compartments. The compartments are well lighted and ventilated. The Seniors

have a dormitory as well as a separate department into which each aspires to admission. This department is arranged in alcove style, each of the alcoves having a bed, chair, stand, and small mirror. They are done in a light ivory paint. The girls are allowed to arrange them as they personally wish. (# 79)

On the fourth floor, a little apartment of five rooms has been attractively arranged for the high school girls. There are fourteen beds in the five rooms, each room having at the most three beds. In each room there are little alcoves, as many as there are beds in the room. Each alcove contains a wash-basin with running water, a towel rack, and a mirror. A large wardrobe, a table with a lamp, and a rug complete the equipment in each room. Cretonne curtains add to the attractiveness of these rooms. All five rooms open onto a little combination living-study room. (# 55)

In the senior girls' dormitory are thirteen beds. Beside each is a dressing table with mirror and two drawers, and a low-back chair. The bed spreads are of rose-and-white striped crêpe material. Around each bed are unbleached muslin curtains with rose border; these when closed give each girl the privacy of an alcove. The girls may arrange their dressing tables as they personally desire. One of the junior dormitories, for eighth grade and younger high school girls, is similarly arranged, except for the color scheme. Tables and chairs are ivory colored; spreads are of blue and white, and wool blankets are designed in large blue and white blocks; the borders of the curtains are of delf blue. (# 81)

(8) *Photos.* The following excerpt deals only with a detail. But it carries an interesting suggestion. Photos kept may also remind later of early ideals. In group photos, groups of friends mean more than groups made up of classes.

The children frequently have their pictures taken in groups and individually, especially after they have taken part in some play. Enough pictures are always ordered so that each child may, when he leaves the institution, have his own set of all pictures of himself, taken either with groups or alone. It may be added that at this same institution children are allowed to come in from the outside and share the playground and

gymnasium facilities of the home with the children living there. This has helped to knit the institutional children into the outside play groups and has created no problems of health or conduct for the institution. (# 27)

2. THE CRAVING FOR AFFECTION

When a stranger enters a child-caring home for the first time and the children crowd around and cling to him, their reaction may be very touching and may be very flattering to him, but often it is an eloquently tell-tale symptom that all is not well. The institution may be beautifully appointed, its equipment and physical environment the pride of its benefactors, but it may be a body without a soul. Such clinging is ordinarily a symptom of undernourished or starved affections.

Affection. That a child needs a father's and a mother's love is a hard-worked and threadbare truism. Our modern psychology has merely emphasized this ancient axiom. It has pointed out the many undesirable reactions and conflicts, affecting physical, mental and moral health, that thrive weedlike in a loveless soul. Depriving a child of love or failure to show him love is helping to wear him down in body, mind and soul, and to handicap him for citizenship both in the commonwealth of man and in the commonwealth of God.

One who is not fond of children has no place in an institution. A religious vocation is not necessarily a vocation for children's work. Training, technique, judgment, experience and zeal, may be of a superior order, but if real liking for children and real joy in living and working with them be lacking, neither skill or zeal, however kindly meant and conscientiously given, can make up for the lack.

This does not mean that affection need be effusive and demonstrative. Still less does it mean anything that savors of mushy sentimentalism or coddling. In fact, emotional demonstrations may overshoot the mark. On the other hand, there is no reason and no excuse for the staff to assume a coldly distant and reserved attitude toward the institutional child. The major hazard for him is not that he will receive too much demonstration of affection but rather that he will receive too little.

There is a middle and a better way between effusive petting and repressed aloofness. If those in charge of the child really love him

as he is, faults and all, the child will know. But even so, such customary marks of affection should be given the child as would be given by the child's own father and mother. Perhaps the simplest rule is: Like and love the child and then be natural and sensible about manifesting such liking and love.

If the child has suitable parents, relatives and friends, everything should be done to strengthen the golden cords of love that tie the child to them and them to the child. Every reasonable provision needs to be made for parents, relatives and friends, if they are suitable, to visit the child, and for the child to visit them. Parents, relatives and friends should be encouraged in every way to keep in touch with the child by personal visit, by letter, by gifts of clothing, of books, of toys, of delicacies, or of anything else they can afford. The child in turn should be encouraged to pray daily for those at home, and for friends and relatives outside, and, so far as possible under the circumstances, to write to them and to make whatever little gifts lie within his power. Frequent personal contact and interchange of gifts and of other good offices are the fuel for the flames of affection.

It need hardly be added that every means possible within the limits of the institution should be taken to keep brothers and sisters together,—if not in the same cottage under the cottage plan, then in the same institution with frequent opportunities of visiting each other and of being with each other, or, if they be separated in different institutions, then with frequent chances to meet and so to keep the family ties of love and affection strong.

Where there is question of children in the institution who have neither parents nor relatives nor friends with whom they can keep in touch and from whom affection may come and to whom affection may be given, then it is well worth while, as is done in not a few of our institutions, to make provision for the child to acquire friends outside the institution who will be interested in him personally because they like him and not merely because they crave a live toy to play with or a pet to emotionalize over; who will be counsellors, guides and confidants to him; who will in some measure serve as substitutes for father and mother; to whose genuine love the child will look and whom the child may in turn love. The child naturally appreciates and enjoys the good times which such friends provide,

the modest presents they give him. But much more important for the child's mental health and usually much more treasured by the child himself are genuine affection and kindly understanding. Not by cake alone do children live.

In some cases, such outside friends of the children come from among members of the institution's alumni or alumnae association; in other cases, from societies, guilds or auxiliaries connected with or interested in the institution, or from local Catholic women's colleges.

In none of the institutions studied have we found in operation the "foster-parent" plan, described in the subjoined comments. The plan is submitted, however, as one well worth considering.

In Belgium, individual children are "adopted" by "foster-parents", but do not leave the institution. The "adoption" is not our legal adoption. The foster-parents take a special interest in the particular child, along the lines suggested above. (# 301)

A nearby Jewish child-caring home allows carefully selected married couples to act as foster-parents to its children who have no parents or relatives. The children send their school reports to their foster-parents and visit in their home. The children have the feeling of "belonging" to some one who has a personal interest in them. Many additional advantages are afforded the child both while in the institution and after leaving. He knows his foster-parents and their friends, and they are interested in seeing him make good. (# 317)

If the child's parents are living and their influence is not hopelessly evil, care and tact must be exercised lest his love of and loyalty to them be undermined and crowded out and won away by others. A child's affection for his parents is a sacred thing that no one, staff member or outsider, may by direct or indirect means steal away or tamper with.

The love needs of the child are fulfilled by giving as well as by receiving. Generosity, moreover, on the natural level is the germ of charity on the supernatural level. The law of charity may be colloquially expressed: Those that have shall share. It is a commonplace of good institutional life that children who tend to share generously with their mates their modest treasures,—be they money, or

toys, or good things to eat,—should be encouraged in such expressions of the spirit of generosity.

Understanding. Closely akin to love is understanding. The child needs a confidant, one to whom he can go freely for comfort when in sorrow, to whom he can speak freely and from whom he can seek and receive counsel when in trouble or in doubt. The child should be trained, of course, in proportion to his age, to stand on his own feet, to meet his own crises, to make his own choices and decisions. But the child, even more so than those of us who have attained maturity, needs the comfort and counsel of a confidant, one who “understands”. For the vast majority of children “it seems certain that advice delivered by a superior being who never descends to the child’s own level or takes the trouble to get at what lies behind his words and acts is generally ineffective, while the unobtrusive suggestions of one who has shown himself a comrade and friend, offered without authoritative emphasis in the course of free talk, have a far better chance of being accepted.” (Sayles, *The problem child at home*, p. 11).

The child will be glad to confide in the person whom he loves, respects, and admires. You must win the child’s confidence before you can truly help him. You cannot win the child unless you understand him, sympathize with him, get his viewpoint, and have insight into his needs. Unless he gives you his confidence, it is very difficult to guide him. (# 320)

An important service rendered by parents to the child is talking over with him and interpreting to him his everyday experiences. This is done almost unconsciously in the family, as, for instance, when all gather at the meal time and share the day’s happenings, or when the father or mother chat freely or confidentially with the child. Much the same service can be rendered within the institution if freedom, affection, confidence, and understanding prevail therein. And much, too, can thus be done to soften the poignant anguish of the homesick child. (# 331)

Cautions. It may be quite superfluous to suggest the following two cautions in connection with the subject of affection and understanding, but the first of them at least is frequently mentioned as a

hazard when the question of showing affection to children in the institution is under discussion.

- (a) Avoid favoritism or anything that would be interpreted by the children as favoritism. Where there is a "teacher's pet", trouble brews. Resentment, antagonism, jealousy, and other undesirable reactions among the children easily spring up and grow apace. This is no reason for stifling the manifestations of affection. It is a reason for taking care that both affection and its expression be evenly and judiciously distributed. Whatever risk inheres in the situation can be reduced to a minimum or avoided entirely by the exercise of those qualities of head and heart that are presupposed in any one who has to do with children, namely, good sense, fair play, and emotional balance.
- (b) One of the surest ways of breaking down both love and confidence is to cast up to the child, in however tempered a way, his own dependence or to remind him how grateful he ought to be to have a good home in the institution. "Gratitude is, indeed, a sentiment whose fostering conditions are difficult of definition; but one sure way to nip it in the bud is to demand it as a right". (Sayles, l. c., p. 113). The refined cruelty, however unintentional, that reminds the institutional child of his own dependence, not only kills gratitude but tends to do to death both love and confidence.

3. COURAGE AND CONTROL OF TEMPER

The factors that make for and against mental health are as numerous and as complicated as those which make for and against physical and moral health. In fact, as in the case of moral health, practically every detail of a good institutional program helps to build up and to maintain a high level of emotional health, balance, and stability. The two factors dealt with in this section of the present chapter are singled out for special treatment, as having very special significance for every child, and particularly the child in the institution.

a. *Courage and Fear.* In the present state of our knowledge, it would seem that nearly all the common fears that children experience have been acquired from their environment and training. A

very young infant shows the responses of fear chiefly when bodily support is suddenly removed, when he is subjected to sudden loud sounds, or when while half awake or half asleep a sudden push or slight shake or sudden pulling of the blanket takes place. There is no clear evidence that children are instinctively afraid of the dark, of thunder and lightning, of particular animals or persons, and so forth. From those around them, however, they often learn fear of darkness and of storms, fear of ghosts and "terrors of the night". Partly from those around them and partly from their own experience, they acquire fear of physical pain or of certain types of physical pain.

The line between fear and prudence is often a difficult one to draw. Learning where real physical and psychical hazards lie is an integral part of the child's training. Naturally it is one of the functions of those who are responsible for such training to coach, to warn, to inform the child where there are real hazards. A child should begin early to learn the common hazards to health and life, to moral growth and to spiritual development. Caution and balance need, however, to be preserved lest, in addition to rational prudence, the child develop irrational dreads.

It may be added, too, that in the religious training of the child the greater emphasis should be put upon love, gratitude and duty as the dominant supernatural motives rather than upon fear. Bring home to him in every possible way that God is his Father and Friend. Dealing, however, as we must, not with members of the angelic hosts, but with very human youngsters, the motive of supernatural prudence cannot safely or wisely be omitted.

Regarding irrational natural dreads, as distinct from rational natural or supernatural prudence, the following suggestions may be made:

- (1) Prevention is better than cure. Most of these dreads are acquired by contagion from irrational dreads of adults with whom the child is thrown into association. Emotions are catching. If the child's elders themselves fear darkness, storms or "ghosts", they will need either to rid themselves of these dreads or else to suppress, so far as is humanly possible, the expression of them in the child's presence.

- (2) Discover if possible the cause of the dread, and, if the child is at all mature enough, talk the matter over with him and endeavor to reason out with him the unreasonableness of the unfounded fear. Stress also the fact of God's love and care for him.
- (3) Endeavor to accustom him to the dreaded event or object by gradual steps. If, for instance, he is afraid of the dark, accustom him by slow steps to go into the dark alone. Ridiculing him, and still more, forcing him to remain in darkness, will in most cases aggravate the dread. The child should be warned to reasonable caution regarding physical hazards such as germs and crossing dangerous streets and the moral hazards of sin. But in so warning there is need of judgment and good sense lest the child develop an unhealthy over-solicitude regarding health and other hazards and develop likewise a scrupulous conscience. In a word, encourage sensible prudence; prevent unfounded and harmful fears.

b. *Temper Control and Anger.* Anger may take many forms, but these are in one sense reducible to two; the negative reaction of moodiness, sullenness, sulking, pouting; the positive reaction typified by the temper tantrum with its accompanying tears, screams, kicking and striking, holding of breath, and so forth.

Some of the more common causes of anger in its negative and positive aspects are the following: nervous fatigue or other health conditions; failure or the sense of inferiority; worries and dreads; teasing and ridicule; unhappiness and discontent from whatever cause; jealousy, envy and resentment; the sense of injustice; imitation and example. Back of most anger is the thwarting of some desire. The first infantile manifestations of anger are usually associated with the hampering of the infant's movements. A child will often resort to the temper tantrum to have his own way and to gain ends that are being denied him. It is a weapon which he frequently finds useful to enable him to conquer his social environment represented by parent or other adult more powerful than himself. The infant at a very early age may learn that a tantrum or something akin to it will get him the attention and recognition he craves, and

this early acquired infant strategy is very apt, unless wisely controlled, to become a normal strategy for getting attention as the child grows up.

Treatment should naturally differ in accordance with the cause of the anger itself. If the child lacks temper control because of physical conditions contributing to such emotional unbalance, effort should be made to right what is physically wrong. Other equally obvious measures need to be taken in accordance with the underlying factor or factors in the given case. A general rule in those cases where the child resorts to the tantrum to have his own way, to dodge what he does not want to do, or to get attention, is to see to it that the child's strategy does not work out to his own advantage. A young infant who has learned by experience that screaming will get him the fondling and the floor walking he desires, can best be trained out of his infantile tantrum habit by being allowed to cry himself out for three or four nights until the large idea gradually dawns on him that broadcasting doesn't pay. Whether in infants or in older children, it is imperative, if the tantrum habit is persistent, to search for the cause, which may be subjective and physical or else environmental and social, and to eliminate the cause so far as possible. Not all anger and not all tantrums are childhood devices to outwit their elders and get attention.

While endeavoring to lessen the force of the factors that make for loss of self-control and that lead very frequently to definite sin, it is likewise of importance to build up within the child an inner mastery of temper by appeal to both natural and supernatural motives and by use of the supernatural means of grace.

The child or the grown person who never feels anger is lacking in something important for normal life. A human being who does not feel moral indignation at cruelty, at injustice and at similar evils, is lacking in one of the great stimuli to better behavior. On the other hand, evenness of disposition, control of temper, the emotional captancy of one's own soul, are of primary importance both for mental and for moral health. And, when all is said and done, it must be built up from within by the ideal of self-mastery, an ideal that must rise superior to the occasions of and incentives to anger that daily dog the footsteps even of those who lead the most sheltered lives and in whose personality and environment there operate the fewest untoward factors.

4. PERSONAL AND EMOTIONAL HEALTH

We may merely summarize here in a few words what has been dealt with a little more at length in the chapter on Moral Training. Treatment, whether in building up emotional health or in correcting deviations therefrom, consists primarily in discovering and in treating the factors or causes. In simpler cases such factors are easily diagnosed, and ordinarily yield quickly or gradually to treatment. In more complicated cases, both diagnosis and treatment may demand the services of the professional psychiatrist. The average staff member may reasonably be expected to have such mastery of the elements of mental hygiene as will enable him or her to cope personally with simpler cases and to recognize symptoms indicative of more serious and complex cases. In these more complex cases the services of a psychiatrist or of a child-guidance clinic should be sought.

The following are some of the conditions or symptoms listed by Thom (Habit training for children, no. 9) as suggesting the advisability or necessity of appeal to professional psychiatric assistance.

Physical conditions: night terrors, sleep walking, enuresis, hysterical spells, habit motions of mouth or body.

Mental conditions: excessive make-believe or daydreaming, unusual dreads, unusual attachments or dislikes, premature or unnatural sex manifestations, obstinacy or negativism, temper tantrums.

Information regarding the available child guidance and psychiatric clinics in the various States of the Union may be gotten from the following two publications:

Directory of Psychiatric Clinics for Children in the United States, 2nd ed., Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1928;

List of Psychiatric Clinics for Children in the United States, publication no 191, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1929.

These clinical facilities are growing rapidly. Printed lists soon become out-of-date. Information on newly organized clinics can be

gotten from local charity bureaus or State boards of charities and departments of welfare. Many states have bureaus of mental hygiene.

Catholic institutions desiring or intending to make use of local clinics should first inquire from the local Catholic Charities or other responsible sources as to the professional status and ethical attitudes of such clinics.

B. INTELLECTUAL HEALTH.

Under this general heading we shall deal briefly, first, with mental disease, and, secondly, with the problem of subnormal and super-normal mentality. Mental disease will be merely touched upon. It is here treated under intellectual health rather than under emotional health, more in view of some of its effects than in view of its causes which latter are very commonly emotional. Subnormal and super-normal mentality is more strictly of the intellectual order. It will be dealt with in slightly greater detail.

I. MENTAL DISEASE

Mental disorder cannot be called an urgent institution problem. The subject is mentioned here merely to call attention to the importance of such preventive treatment as an institution can be expected to give. In some types of psychosis at least there seems to be some evidence that a tendency to mental disorder may be inherited. Moreover, some of the not uncommon conflicts that arise in the child's life, may, unless satisfactorily dealt with in childhood years, develop gradually into psychotic states. Apart however from the question of how far mental disease is the result of hereditary tendencies and how far it is the result of acquired conflicts or other causes psychiatrists are agreed that adult mental disease very commonly begins to take root and grow in the soil of early childhood, and that "a knowledge and the intelligent use of wholesome principles in mental-health training during childhood will do much to reduce the large number of cases of insanity" (Pratt, *Your mind and you*, 18).

As the chance of the average individual developing grave mental disorder in later life is about one out of twenty, we can easily realize the importance of the problem and the necessity of the institution doing its part, through intelligent curative and preventive

measures, to reduce the large incidence in our American population of serious mental disease. Some of the more important methods of prevention have been suggested in the preceding sections of the present chapter as well as in the chapter on Moral Training.

2. SUBNORMAL AND SUPERNORMAL MENTALITY

The classification of children into the dull, the average, and the bright is an ancient one. Since 1905 however when the first intelligence rating scale, the Binet-Simon, was published by the two Parisian psychologists, Doctor Binet and Doctor Simon, great progress has been made in the more exact measurement and rating of intelligence levels. This original scale has gone through later revisions both abroad and in this country, and a great number of other tests to measure general intelligence or special abilities have been devised. These numerous tests are of varying value, but the better ones at least have put in our hands a means for the measurement of mentality that has proven of much practical value in education, in social work, and in many other fields.

Through the use of the intelligence test the mental age of the child is tentatively determined. By mental age is understood the intelligence or mental ability of the child as determined by the score the average child actually makes on a given test or set of tests. If a given child taking such test or tests, scores higher than the average child on the same tests, he is rated as supernormal; if he scores lower, he is rated as subnormal. If, for instance, a child whose actual or chronological age is ten years scores on these tests what average children of eight years of age score, he is rated as subnormal, and as having a mental age of eight years. If the same child whose chronological age is ten years scores what average children of twelve years of age score on the same test, he is rated as supernormal, as having a mental age of twelve years.

The intelligence quotient or IQ is obtained by dividing the child's mental age (MA) by his chronological age (CA) and multiplying the result by 100. In the case just cited the subnormal child of ten with a mental age of eight has an IQ of 80, while the supernormal child of ten with a mental age of twelve has an IQ of 120. As native intelligence, so far as measurable by tests, appears to improve very little after the chronological age of fifteen or sixteen years children over sixteen are rated as 16 (CA) in deriving their IQ.

In a random testing of a large number of children they would tend ordinarily to fall into the following groups. About 70% will be typical or normal with an IQ of 89 to 112. On either side of these will be a group of about 15%. Of the 15% who are supernormal, about four-fifths will tend to measure as super-typical with an IQ of 113 to 124; and one-fifth as very superior with an IQ of 125 or higher. Of the 15% who are subnormal, about four-fifths will tend to have an IQ between 77 and 88 and rank as sub-typical, while about one-fifth will tend to have an IQ of 76 or less and so rank as feeble-minded.

These seemingly exact divisions are to a certain extent arbitrary and merely serve as convenient divisions, not as rigid final classes or categories. For it is recognized that the dividing line between normality, supernormality, and subnormality is a more or less vague or shifting one, particularly on its borders and that moreover there are very apt to be real elements of error in the tests owing to differences in language ability and in interest, and to other disturbing factors. Moreover, so far as the subnormal type in particular is concerned, allowance must be made, in rating the individual child, for the possibility of mere retardation which is often not distinguishable or only with great difficulty distinguishable from definite subnormal intelligence. In addition, there is no little discussion as to what general intelligence consists in and as to the precision with which the intelligence tests actually measure such intelligence or specific abilities. Making all these allowances, however, and recognizing that the results of the tests must be used with certain definite cautions and must be checked up by other evidence on the child's mentality, nevertheless such intelligence testing has by experience proven of inestimable practical value both in education and in social work.

The problem of intelligence levels is well recognized in the institutions studied. It bears on many phases of the institutional program, but chiefly on social policies, on educational programs, and on moral and mental health. Its relation to social policies and educational programs will be dealt with in the respective chapters. In the present chapter we shall outline some of the pertinent factors regarding subnormal and supernormal intellectual levels, and shall add a few suggestions regarding treatment, from the angle of moral and mental health.

a. *Subnormal Mentality.* (1) *Divisions.* We divide the subnormals into three main groups, although this division itself is to a certain extent arbitrary, inasmuch as one group merges imperceptibly into another like the colors of a rainbow. The feeble-minded, or those with an IQ of about 70 or 75 or under, are divided into the morons, the imbeciles and the idiots. If, for instance, a boy of sixteen has the mental age of a child of two years or under he is classed as an idiot; if he has the mental age of a child seven or eight years old, an imbecile; if the mental age of a child eleven or twelve years old or under, a moron. So far as the institution is concerned the idiot and the imbecile do not form one of its problems, inasmuch as such children are very rarely admitted to ordinary child-caring institutions. The problem which the institution faces is that of the moron, particularly of the middle-grade and high-grade moron. The institution also has to deal with a certain number of children who are sub-typical or borderline cases, children who are not technically classed as feeble-minded, yet who are definitely below the average child in mentality, children whose IQ would range roughly between 77 and 88 or between about 70 or 75 and 90.

(2) *Some newer concepts regarding feeble-mindedness.* Before dealing directly with the relations of feeble-mindedness to behavior, it may help to clear the atmosphere a little if we summarize some of the rather common misconceptions regarding feeble-mindedness and outline briefly the present state of our knowledge concerning it. Feeble-mindedness is not a mental disease but rather an arrest of intellectual growth in the early life of the individual. It is not always hereditary; from our present evidence, it is estimated that about fifty per cent of the feeble-minded "owe their mental defect to accidental causes, such as prenatal neglect, injuries at birth, and early childhood diseases like scarlet fever, infantile paralysis, and 'sleeping sickness'". Feeble-mindedness "is an organic condition involving a lack of development of brain tissue and cannot be cured in a medical sense". Feeble-mindedness, as is obvious, should not be confused with the quite different phenomenon of mental disease.

Although feeble-mindedness cannot be cured as can many or most mental diseases proper, nevertheless the feeble-minded can be taught many things. Their abilities to learn are, as compared with those of the normal child, limited, in greater or lesser degree, in ac-

cordance with the greater or lesser degree of feeble-mindedness present. However they can be taught and can learn many things. Moreover, we have found by experiment that the feeble-minded, particularly of the middle-grade and high-grade moron type, can be fitted under proper training to do useful work in the world and to take an independent, even if humble, place in society.

Feeble-minded children share the same emotions and cravings as do other children, and fall into the same various temperamental types. They are not "different" from other children, nor of a class apart. If anything, they hunger for love, affection, and recognition of accomplishment, even more than do the mentally normal. What Davies writes of the feeble-minded in general holds true of feeble-minded children:

"Among so many of the feeble-minded there is an almost pitiable craving for respectability, an ardent desire to conform, to be like other people, to live, and dress, and play like them, to associate with them, to have their esteem, to be 'regular folks'. The feeble-minded are to a certain extent defective in intellect. They are not necessarily defective in emotions or instincts."¹

(3) *Feeble-mindedness, delinquency and misbehavior.* It was rather commonly thought in the early days of intelligence testing, a decade and a half or two decades ago, that the majority of or most feeble-minded children were on the highroad to delinquency. Fuller evidence, more accurate testing, and closer analysis of the factors in delinquency have made it reasonably certain today that these earlier and alarming views were not based on scientific grounds. According to the data available today, it would seem that probably not more than ten per cent of the feeble-minded run the way of delinquency, and even these ten per cent are largely drawn from the ranks of the neglected, or of those who have not been properly trained along lines demanded by their limited capacities.

On the other hand, it still remains true that there is actually a slightly higher percentage of delinquency and misconduct among feeble-minded children than among normal-minded ones. Such mis-

¹ Social control of the feeble-minded, p. 196.

conduct, however, as is found among the feeble-minded is not due to their mental defect directly and as such. But their mental deficiency serves as a fertile field in which thrive apace some of the common factors which make for undesirable behavior. Two of the more outstanding moral hazards in the feeble-minded child are inferiority feelings and relatively high suggestibility.

It is easily understandable how inferiority feelings, some of the possibilities of which as occasions of sin have been suggested in the chapter on Moral Training, can easily develop in the feeble-minded child. He lacks the mentality and the abilities that enable normal children to make their way through life as equals among equals, and to gain status among and recognition from their fellows. Regarding the higher suggestibility and kindred traits of the feeble-minded child, Doctor Furfey, in summing up the factors for the gang-age boy, has summed up the situation of feeble-minded children in general.

“As for the moral side the mentally inferior boy tends to be docile, suggestible and indiscriminating. When he is in a good home and his parents manage him well he tends to be obedient and easy to manage. But unfortunately he shows the same suggestibility toward bad companions. The dull boy is not necessarily less moral; but with equally good intentions he will still commit more anti-social acts because he does not realize their seriousness. In this he resembles a young child. Even the best of little children need constant attention to keep them out of mischief, because they lack good judgment. The retarded boy is a child in this.”¹

It may be added that the mental deficient of idiot or imbecile level do not ordinarily commit crimes or become delinquents. They are commonly placed in institutions or kept under very close surveillance. It is among the feeble-minded proper,—the low grade, middle grade and high grade morons,—that tendencies to undesirable behavior are more commonly found. Seemingly, the defective becomes delinquent much more frequently during the adolescent age (16-20) than at any other, and more with an MA of eight to ten

¹ The gang age, p. 98.

years are committed as defective delinquents than any other MA group.

(4) *Diagnosis: Intelligence Testing.* As for the treatment of the conduct problems of the feeble-minded, the first thing, of course, is to determine whether or not in an individual case we are dealing with deficient mentality. This is not always easy. In fact, "the diagnosis of feeble-mindedness is frequently a difficult matter, even when the intelligence test is administered by an expert psychologist, and . . . the psychiatrist must often be called in to eliminate various causes of remediable mental backwardness before a condition of true mental defect is established."

The following comments suggest further safeguards that should be taken when possible.

Mental testing should be preceded by physical and medical examination and treatment, so that the child may be at his best, as we should desire to be if we were passing an important test. (# 317)

The results obtained by one expert examiner should be checked by at least one other expert, and their interpretations should be very carefully combined. (# 320)

Diagnosis is better deferred until the child and his habits are known thoroughly and until he has been tested more than once by competent examiners. (# 335)

Apropos of the question of diagnosis, we may quote in detail an important caution voiced in the following editorial in the *Mental Hygiene Bulletin* (Apr. 1925, p. 2):

"The method of testing intelligence looks easy. Any bright person, it would seem, should be able to ask a series of questions and record the answers. However, an intelligence test is a highly technical procedure. No one, whether nurse, teacher, doctor, or social worker, should be permitted to give one, unless he has been technically trained in the use, and *especially in the interpretation of the test* [italics ours]. A few lectures on the theory of such tests qualifies no one for this work. Training under supervision is necessary.

"Recently we have received reports of well-intentioned nurses

and teachers, deceived by the harmless appearance of the test blank, giving tests to school children when no trained psychologist was available. This is a dangerous procedure. Often, on the results of such tests, certain children are demoted or transferred to special classes and stigmatized in the eyes of their companions and relatives for years to come. To label a child as feeble-minded is at best a serious matter. When done with knowledge and accuracy it is a kindness, to be sure; for then the child will be better understood and will be required to do only those things that lie within his capacity. *When not done accurately it is a tragedy* [italics ours]. Instead of being better understood he is more misunderstood. The treatment he needs is withheld, while the treatment forced on him fails to meet his needs. Ten years later, perhaps in a matter of employment, his school record is consulted. This 'blot' is discovered, and the doors are closed to him.

"There can be no middle ground in giving intelligence tests. Either they must be done accurately or not at all. It is not possible to give a 'fairly good' test. One does not administer a 'fairly good' anesthetic or give a 'fairly good' heart examination. The objection will be voiced that there is often no one in the community who can give an accurate test. Very well. That is unfortunate; but if it is a fact it must be faced as such. It does not justify one in attempting to do what he is not qualified to do. If, for example, the only doctor in the town skilled in performing X-ray examinations should die or leave on a vacation, another without the necessary training for this task would not be justified in saying, 'Well, I don't know much about it; but I'll do the best I can'. If there is no trained person available, there is only one thing to do. Wait until the properly equipped person comes along.

"There are degrees of skill in giving and evaluating intelligence tests. But there is a minimum degree of experience below which no one should attempt them. This minimum consists of a special course of training that embraces a series of examinations under close supervision. While the candidate need not necessarily have a Ph.D. degree, he does need, added to his

theoretical work, a fund of practical experience, preferably gained in a well-organized clinic where technique and interpretation may be constantly checked by a qualified supervisor."

To avoid any possible misunderstanding, we may add that the foregoing cautions refer to intelligence tests proper, not to the ordinary class-room achievement tests.

(5) *Treatment.* As for treatment proper in the conduct problems of the feeble-minded, the following are some key counsels that may be suggested.

1. Recognize the child's limitations and do not demand of him more than he can, with such limitations, be reasonably expected to do.
2. Encourage him in all his successes and avoid anything like nagging or ridicule in such failures as are due to his defective mentality.
3. Search out such skills and abilities as he may have and give him every stimulus to develop them. Give him the opportunity to feel the joy of success in the tasks undertaken, and make sure that he gets an ample measure of praise for what he does accomplish.
4. Praise or reward him more in accordance with effort expended than with gross results attained.
5. Surround him with the best moral influences.
6. While with the normal child it is ordinarily advisable to help him to attain some insight as to the processes in his own life that are responsible for undesirable behavior, in the case of the feeble-minded child much less can be done in this line.
7. Tasks and counsels given to the feeble-minded child must be of the simplest and clearest.
8. Whereas with the normal child the habit of making his own decisions and choices should be encouraged to the utmost compatible with age and maturity, with the feeble-minded child more in the way of "blind" obedience should be expected, although even with the feeble-minded the obedience should be as intelligent and reasonable as the child's mentality permits.
9. On account of the feeble-minded child's higher suggestibility,

special precaution should be taken to shield him from the ordinary occasions of sin in the way of companionship, leisure-time activities, and so forth. For the same reason, it is of no less importance to build up his taste for wholesome companionship and activities, a taste which his natural desire to conform will lead him to display while in the institution.

10. Last but not least, the mentally deficient child has the most imperative and urgent need of religious instruction and of the supernatural sanctions, motives, and means to help him live up to the spiritual and moral ideals upheld by his religion. *To scamp his religious training on account of his mental deficiency is as stupid as it is criminal.* God loves not feeble-minded children less.

b. *Supernormal Mentality.* The super-typical or gifted child is very often quite as much of a conduct problem as is the subnormal, although the factors responsible for his misbehavior are of a different order. The more common tendency towards misbehavior on the part of the supernormal, together with the more common counsels for curing or preventing such misbehavior are summed up by Doctor Furfey as follows:

“The faults most frequently mentioned in connection with the gifted child are egotism and laziness. Of the two, egotism presents the less serious problem. . . . When the fault does appear it seems to yield easily to treatment. By individual talks, by ignoring the offender, and by praising others the tactful teacher finds it easy to overcome this fault when it appears in her class.

“The problem of the lazy child of high IQ is much more difficult. Laziness in these cases is generally a habit of long standing. The child finds it easy to do satisfactory work in class or even to lead the class without doing much work. There is no incentive to make him extend himself. When, therefore, the gifted child enters the opportunity class he often fails to put forth his best efforts. Even experienced teachers find it difficult to solve this problem. . . . The real remedy, of course, is to remove the cause. Our present educational system

encourages laziness in the bright child by not giving him enough work to make him extend himself. The remedy is to provide a curriculum so adjusted to the needs of the individual that even the brightest children will be forced to do their best."¹

The foregoing summary refers more particularly to the gang-age boy and to such conduct problems as arise in the class-room. But what is true of the gifted gang-age boy is in the main true of gifted children in general, and similar methods are required for dealing with him outside of the class-room as within it. It may be merely added that many a child who is particularly troublesome, hard to manage, and close to the limit of incorrigibility is so because the tasks suggested him are too easily accomplished, time hangs heavy on his hands, he is mentally and manually idle, and his mental and manual idleness becomes the proverbial workshop of the lord of the nether regions.

REFERENCES

Among the short non-technical introductions to the general subject of mental health may be specially recommended the booklet by G. K. Pratt, *Your mind and you*. P. H. Furfey's *The gang age*, gives an excellent bird's-eye-view of the field, with emphasis on and case illustrations from preadolescent boyhood, and with valuable bibliographical notes on and guides to the literature of mental hygiene. For more technical and detailed studies of emotional processes underlying conduct, see: T. V. Moore, *Dynamic psychology*; W. Healy, *Mental conflicts and misconduct*. J. J. B. Morgan's *Psychology of the unadjusted school child*, is among the best of the less technical introductions to the slight mental abnormalities that are commonly met among children. For analysis and treatment of fear, anger, and kindred reactions, see any of following by D. A. Thom: *Everyday problems of the everyday child*; *Child management*, rev. ed., 1927; *Habit clinics for the child of pre-school age*. On social and moral aspects of subnormal and supernormal mentality, consult: S. P. Davies, *Social control of the mentally deficient*; C. Burt, *The young delinquent*, chs. vii-viii; W. Healy and A. F. Bronner, *Delinquents and criminals*, ch. xvi. For current developments in the general field of mental health, see the two periodicals published by National committee for mental hygiene, 372-74 Broadway, Albany, N. Y.; *Mental hygiene bulletin*, mthly exc. July-Aug., \$1.00 a year, for general reader; *Mental hygiene*, qly, \$3.00 a year, more technical.

¹ The gang age, p. 114-115.

CHAPTER V

MEDICAL CARE

The Problem. The obligation of building up and safeguarding both our own bodily health and the bodily health of those committed to our keeping is basic in Catholic moral teaching and does not need to be labored. First our very lives are loaned to us as a trust from God, and He expects us therefore to take reasonable care of life and health. Secondly, we ordinarily need good health in order to do our life work well and to give our best service to God and man. Thirdly, we are human beings made up of body and soul, and both body and soul are the handwork of God as they are the temple of the Holy Spirit; hence reverence and care are due to them. Fourthly, bodily health is often closely related to spiritual health. (See Father Lockington's *Bodily Health and Spiritual Vigour*, Ch. 1-vi).

As to the fourth reason, the relationship between physical conditions and moral conduct, a good deal of discussion and some difference of view have developed in late years. Our more recent studies in this country, such as Carter's (in *Mental Hygiene*, Jan. 1926, x, 83) and Healy and Bronner's (*Delinquents and Criminals*, 140), do not, it is true, show physical defects as appreciably more common among delinquent children than among non-delinquents, although Burt found among his English delinquent children studied that in ten per cent of the boys and seven per cent of the girls "some illness or bodily infirmity seemed the principal source of the child's faults" (*The Young Delinquent*, 239). That, however, such conditions as notable oversize or under-size, malnutrition, and physical abnormalities frequently affect moral behavior, at least indirectly or as contributory factors, is generally recognized. That, moreover, good health tends to decrease the occasions of sin and the force of the capital sins, and that subnormal health conditions tend to increase them, is a matter of everyday experience among all who are engaged in the task of the moral education of children. Some of the many ways in which bodily conditions affect moral welfare are touched upon in the chapter on Moral Training.

As Miss Spencer sums up the situation in her recent review of the evidence: "The relation of the child's physical characteristics and condition to his behavior is largely indirect; but, through the mental attitudes they create, physical conditions may prove obstacles to character development, and sometimes they do" (*Obstacles to Character Development*, Proc. Nat. Cath. Educ. Asso., 1929, xxvi, 554).

The importance of the health program in the child-caring home may be illustrated from another angle, namely, the prevalence of physical defects and ailments among our children. A number of surveys of the health of our American school children have been made, and while the statistical results differ widely from survey to survey, due to the differences in methods of examination, in standards set up, and in other factors, nevertheless it is quite obvious that physical defects and ailments are extremely widespread. Among our 27,000,000 or more children of school age in America, it is commonly reported that more than seventy-five per cent suffer from some physical defect. While some of the following estimates, by Dr. Thomas D. Wood, have to be revised downward, in view of newer information that has come out since they were made some years ago, they nevertheless give an idea of actual conditions.

"Seven-tenths per cent of the school children (nearly 200,000) suffer from organic heart trouble. . . .

The number of children with decayed teeth varies in different localities from 50 to 98%. . . .

It is estimated that at least 5% of the children of school age, approximately 1,000,000 have been infected with tubercle bacilli showing the presence of tuberculosis infection. . . .

From 30 to 40% have adenoids and diseased tonsils.

One-fourth of the school population, or about 6,000,000, have defects in vision.

From 25 to 40% have defects of posture and foot arches.

From 15 to 25% are malnourished." (Wood, *Health Education*, (16-17).

Adequate statistical data on physical defects and health condi-

tions among the children in our child-caring homes are not available. Considering, however, the social background of a high proportion of these children, it is more than likely that the percentage of physical defects and ailments is appreciably higher among children entering institutions than among those outside institutions. In one institutional study recently made, of 218 children examined,—all in the institution,—only 31 were without physical defects. In thirty-three of the remaining 187, defects of a minor nature were discovered. Various conditions calling for special attention were found among 154 of the children, some of them being the following: carious teeth, 42 or 19% of the total population; diseased tonsils, 37 or 17%; suspicious tonsils, 59 or 27%. The most common defects were diseased tonsils, decayed teeth, and defective vision. Other defects noted in other children were hernias, simple thyroid enlargements, rheumatic heart disease, and very definite signs of tuberculosis. A number of the children had two or more such defects. These high percentages prevailed notwithstanding the fact that in this particular institution before admission all children are given a rather complete physical examination, and after admission a good deal of follow-up work is done and regular medical and dental care is provided.

In addition to the problem of defects, which the institution in common with the school has to face, the former is confronted with a greater problem than is the latter in the hazard of infection and contagion. The children in institutions are brought into more intimate and more numerous contacts than are school children living in their own homes, and consequently the danger of contagion and infection is correspondingly increased.

Furthermore, not only has a great amount of remedial medical care and of health training and re-training to be given to the children who enter our child-caring homes, but also, on account of the frequently very rapid turnover, such care, training, and re-training have to be given intensively. The child remains in the school from eight to twelve years. In many institutions children remain on the average hardly more than as many months.

These three conditions,—widespread prevalence of physical defects and ailments, hazard of infection and contagion, and rapid turnover,—lay upon the shoulders of the child-caring home a heavy

burden and responsibility. The task which the institution faces is a threefold one; medical care, physical care, and health education. The present chapter will deal with medical care; the next chapter, with physical care and health education.

A. CONCRETE PROGRAMS

By way of introduction to the study of the medical program in detail, it has been thought well to outline two concrete programs as they are being worked out in two of our institutions. Both programs are still in process of active development. They are not proposed as 100% perfect. The two institutions concerned feel strongly that they still have a long way to go before they will be satisfied. The first of these illustrations may prove of particular interest inasmuch as it includes a brief narrative of the development of the program as well as an objective check-up on the results obtained.

1. *Staff.* The house physician does not live in the institution, but within two blocks of it. He is on the staff of the adjoining Catholic hospital. He visits the institution frequently, never less than three or four times a week, and much oftener when any child is ill. If in an emergency he is not available, another physician can always be obtained immediately from the staff of the nearby hospital. The head of the Health Department of the institution is a sister who is an R. N. The dentist comes to the institution regularly one morning a week for two hours. A specialist in eye, ear, nose and throat and a specialist in orthopedics make a yearly examination of all children in the institution, follow up personally their examinations, and are available at their offices for services at any time.

In addition to the foregoing, there are also on the orphanage medical staff a surgeon, a dermatologist, an anesthetist, an endocrinologist, and specialists in immunization and dental extraction.

All of the above staff, drawn from among the outstanding physicians and specialists in the city, give their best and fullest services to the children of the institution on a volunteer basis without one cent of pay.

Pre-admission Examinations. Pre-admission stripped examinations of all children entering the orphanage are made by the

junior staff of the outpatient department of the adjoining Catholic hospital. These physical examinations are always reviewed by the house physician who is a senior member of the hospital staff. In these examinations Wassermann, vaginal smear, throat and nose cultures and vaccinations (if not already done) are routine. Schick tests are given yearly to children in groups by the City Board of Health and toxin-antitoxin is given to positive reactors; blood count and temperature are taken twice before the Schick test is given.

Receiving Department. The receiving department is a complete unit, provided with its own equipment and playground, and the children therein are completely isolated from contact with the other children in the institution. The receiving ward has four bedrooms. The number of beds per room can be regulated according to the need at any given time. Boys and girls are kept separate. There is a small kitchen, but meals are sent over from the main kitchen and the children have the same menus as have the children in the institution, unless the one in charge of the receiving ward asks for special food in individual cases.

The following are the rules and procedure on admission to the receiving department:

<i>First day</i>	Bathe child Clean clothing Temperature three times a day Old clothes disinfected or destroyed
<i>Second day</i>	Child remains in bed. Laxative given
<i>Third day</i>	If previous medical examination has not been made, child taken to dispensary for thorough physical examination
<i>During stay</i>	Basal metabolic rate Hemoglobin estimate Leucocyte count Urinalysis and feces analysis Physical examination for evidences of endocrine imbalance Mental age
<i>Before departure</i>	Throat culture taken Children bathed and dressed in clean clothes

On admission to the institution each child is isolated for fourteen days in the receiving ward. The house physician visits the children in the ward when needed. He also personally sees each child and reviews the report of physical examinations of each child before the child leaves the receiving ward.

The sister R. N. in charge of the institution's Health Department has supervision over the ward. A lay practical nurse with kindergarten experience is in immediate charge of the ward and spends her entire time there.

In the receiving ward, children are cleaned up, physical defects are corrected so far as possible, habit training is started, the children are accustomed to the change in their lives, and are given an opportunity to get used to their new environment gradually instead of being thrust suddenly into the large group.

Infirmary. The infirmary is located on the third floor of the main building between the boys' and girls' sections, on both sides of the hall. It consists of a boys' ward with seven beds and a girls' ward with six beds,—one bed to fifteen children in the institution population. Food is prepared in the main kitchen and sent up on a dumbwaiter. The infirmary has a diet kitchen where special dishes can be prepared, and a table at which the children who are not bedridden may eat their meals. It also has a dispensary and bathroom. The cupboards and supply closets are well equipped and supplied with linens, hot-water bottles, ice packs, etc. Records are kept in the office of the sister in charge of the infirmary.

The infirmary can be completely shut off from the rest of the house and is complete in its facilities for the care of isolated cases. It is used for isolated children with colds and minor respiratory diseases.

The infirmary is under the general supervision of the sister in charge of the Health Department of the institution. She has a sister assistant who spends all of her time in the infirmary and sleeps in an adjoining room. A young laywoman also spends part time in the infirmary, and helps as much as is needed. The doctor visits the infirmary frequently and comes whenever called. A week never passes without at least three or four visits.

Dispensary. The dispensary of the institution is connected

with the infirmary and is open at all times, with a sister practically always present and available. Children go to the dispensary for medicine or pills at certain stated times and may go any time they need care by asking permission of the group mother or teacher. It is an established custom for any child with even a slight scratch or pain to go to the sister nurse in charge of the Health Department for advice or help. At 6:00 p. m. daily, she is always present. There is a medicine cabinet in the dispensary, with pills, some drugs, and so forth, in a cupboard which is kept locked. The door to the dispensary is always locked, unless the sister is there. The sister in charge keeps the key. The dispensary is equipped to care for minor difficulties. Prescriptions are always sent to the pharmacy at the adjoining hospital.

Re-examination and Follow-up. The following routine examinations are made annually for all children in the institution: general physical, eyes, ears, nose, and throat, by specialist; for orthopedic defects, bad posture, etc., by specialist. Dental examinations are semi-annual. Thorough follow-up work is carried out after both pre-admission and post-admission examinations. (See further details on follow-up in following section on Records.) Weights are recorded monthly. Undernourished children receive codliver oil twice a day, are given milk at 10:00 a. m., 3:00 p. m., and at night, and are given other special food as recommended.

All the facilities of the adjoining Catholic hospital are available to the institution children, and Burdick lamp treatments, X-ray treatments, etc., are frequently given to the children at the hospital.

Records. Records are kept of the child's health history, beginning with his pre-admission examination. Physical re-examinations, which are annual, have their special blanks, on the back of which the orthopedist also writes his record. The eye, ear, nose and throat specialist has his special blank for annual examination. The dentist has a regular card on which he records dental work for each child. There is a folder for each child in a locked file in the Health Department of the institution. In this folder all of his medical records are kept during his stay at the institution. When he leaves, these records are transferred to his social history folder in the main office.

Record is made on the child's health history of all defects needing correction and of the date upon which correction is made. All treatments and operations are likewise recorded. When a child leaves the institution, a summary of his medical history is typed, listing all corrections, operations, and treatments.

For her own convenience, and to make sure that no needed correction is overlooked, the sister in charge of the Health Department keeps, in a loose-leaf notebook, a chronological list of all children with their defects and with corrections as made. After the routine re-examinations, another list is made of boys and girls with their defects, and these defects are checked as corrections are made.

The endocrinological clinic keeps its own special records in another section of the medical file. Each child who attends the clinic has his folder in which his endocrine summary is filed. Records of metabolism, of mental tests, and so forth, are kept in these endocrine files. For this department also, the sister keeps a special loose-leaf notebook in which she records the children chronologically, with the results of the endocrine clinic examinations and with the recommendations for treatment in parallel columns.

History of Growth of Medical Program. The well-established health tradition at the institution had its beginnings many years ago. The sisters in charge of the institution belong to a hospital community. Many of them have had hospital experience, and are therefore much inclined to emphasize good health ideals. In 1914, each group had its own infirmary with a group mother responsible for looking after her sick children as well as for supervising the well children and for calling the doctor when she felt he was needed. The first step towards building a more adequate health program was the concentration of the care of the sick in the Health Department of the institution. This Department was established for all of the institution groups, and one sister was put in definite charge of it and given the responsibility of constant supervision and care of the sick children.

In 1917, the first preadmission physical examination was made. Since that time there has been a gradual growth in the medical program. In 1922, a sister who is an R. N. and who has had long experience as a hospital superintendent was placed in

charge of the health program. Because of her experience and of her great interest in health, the program advanced rapidly, with the wholehearted cooperation of the institutional staff. Fuller recognition of the need of a separate department for isolating incoming children led to the inauguration in 1924 of this phase of the program. Some new feature has been added to the health program each year.

Back in 1922, a group of four dentists volunteered to do the dental work for the children, each dentist assuming responsibility for a certain number of children. This did not prove entirely satisfactory, as the dentists were not always available when they were needed, and the sister in charge of the Health Department did not feel that the children were getting proper care. At this time the local Dental Dispensary was well organized and it agreed to set aside certain days each week for the institution children. The work of the Dental Dispensary was quite satisfactory, but it proved difficult for the institution to send so many children to town so often. By 1923, the practice of having a dental survey of the teeth of all the children twice every year had been established, and in 1925 Doctor X volunteered to give regular services to the institution and since then has been coming weekly.

As the health service in the institution developed, it was found that, even after thorough physical examinations, a great many of the children needed to be referred to specialists, particularly for eye, ear, nose and throat and orthopedic defects. Consequently, about three years ago, thorough routine annual examinations of each child in the institution by these specialists were inaugurated.

In 1926, the orthopedist referred two children to the endocrine clinic at the outpatient department of the neighboring Catholic hospital. These two children improved so much under treatment at the clinic that the endocrinologist was invited to go on the staff of the institution, where he now has a clinic once each week.

The excellent health tradition and program of the institution is reinforced by the constant attention of the sister in charge of the Health Department to all details of the medical and health program, by her sympathetic touch with all the children, by her skill in winning and keeping their confidence, and by the whole-

hearted cooperation of the group mothers and teachers with the Health Department. This sister works hard to get everything ready for the doctors who give their services to the institution and to make everything as easy and pleasant as possible for them. She makes all preparation for their coming, has each child prepared ahead, has ready the children's records with all preliminary data, and holds herself prepared to do anything required by the doctor during his examination. By her interest in every detail of each child's health, by her close attention to every item, and by her hearty cooperation with each doctor, she has helped to keep keyed to the highest point the interest of all the doctors in the development of the children's health. There has been the utmost cooperation on the part of every one connected with the institution,—director, mother, staff, and doctors. Through her devotion, enthusiasm, initiative, resourcefulness and knowledge, the sister in charge has served as the dynamic center of the whole health tradition and health program.

Results. The results of this expanding program may be judged from the statistical records of the institution, populational and medical, since 1922.

Year	Total population as of Jan. 1	Average population for year	Total no. of sick cases	Total no. of days' care given	Total no. of days' sick care given	Per cent of days' sickness in days' care
1922 .	231	231	273	84,580	2,198	2.59%
1923 .	227	212	163	77,466	1,502	1.93%
1924 .	206	219	112	79,977	584	0.73%
1925 .	217	240	109	87,596	958	1.09%
1926 .	202	194	45	70,708	615	0.86%
1927 .	206	192	62	69,970	520	0.74%
1928 .	178	181	105	66,032	635	0.96%
1929 .	190					

The most significant point in the above table is the striking decrease in the per cent of days' sick care given as computed on the total number of days' care given. The decrease is from 2.59% to 0.96%, from 1922, a cardinal date in the development of the present medical and health program, to 1928 inclusive. During the first three years,—1923 to 1925 inclusive,—after 1922, the amount of illness in proportion to population was on

the average only one half as great as in 1922. During the next three years,—1926 to 1928 inclusive,—there was only one-third as much illness proportionally in the institution as there had been in 1922.

The total population as of January 1st and the total number of sick cases for each year as given in the table, are taken direct from the institution's records. The average population for each year has been computed by dividing the total number of days' care given by 365. Dividing the total annual number of days' sick care given by the computed annual average populations, we get the following results: In 1922, the average annual number of days' sick care per child was 9.5; in the following three years, 1923-25 inclusive, 4.5; during the next three-year period, 1926-28 inclusive, 3.1.

That the relation between the growth of the health program and the marked improvement in health conditions is in the main a causal one and not a merely casual one, seems reasonably clear from the following considerations: (a) the decrease in morbidity is strictly *coincident* in time with the inauguration and development of the fuller medical program; (b) the decrease in morbidity has been a very marked one quite out of proportion for instance to the much slighter decrease in population; (c) from our study of the institution and from consultation with the staff, *no other factors* could be discovered, apart from the developing medical and health program, that could in any appreciable degree account for the striking decrease in the morbidity statistics. (# 88)

The foregoing excerpt, given at length, may illustrate the progressive development and the results of a more adequate plan of medical care. The following medical program also given at length illustrates the attention to details that is needed for safeguarding the children's health in institutions. We may note in passing that it is not intended to recommend all procedures as described in these two illustrations, for adoption by all institutions. Discussion of and recommendations for general procedures will follow the two illustrations. Both institutions emphasize the fact that their medical programs are distinctly in an incomplete and developmental stage.

2. *Staff.* The medical work at the institution is in charge of a physician who is a specialist in contagious diseases and also a qualified pediatrician. He devotes three mornings a week to the work of the institution and also responds at any time to any call of the sister in charge. He receives a yearly salary for his services. An eye specialist comes every time the institution has two or three children needing attention. The ear, throat and nose specialist comes once a month for tonsil operations. The dentist gives three mornings a week to the institution. Two of the sisters in the institution are trained nurses, one being in charge of the receiving cottage and hospital, the other being in charge of the dispensary.

Admission. Children admitted from the neighboring city through the local social agencies have a medical examination before coming to the institution, and must have a certificate from the physician showing what is their actual state of health and what contagious diseases they have had. Children with active tuberculosis or active syphilis are not admitted. On the arrival of children who have been at one of the local hospitals, a notice is at once sent to the house physician, giving the name of the child, the date of arrival, the hospital from which he arrived, and also any recommendations that may have been sent by the hospital.

A medical permit also accompanies each child's admission to the institution, so that the authorities thereof may have permission to take out tonsils or adenoids and to do circumcisions or any other operative procedure which in their best judgment is considered necessary.

After the child is admitted and while he is still in isolation, he receives a very thorough examination at the hands of the institution physician. All children about whom there is any suspicion are given a Wassermann test. Each child has a Schick and Dick test upon admission. For convenience and for economy of material, this is done the first week of each month on all children who were admitted the previous month. Each child with positive Schick test begins toxin-antitoxin injections the week following the test, and has three injections, one week apart. Each child is vaccinated against smallpox upon admission; if the vaccination does not take and there is sufficient evidence of a former vaccination, nothing further is done. All children who have mental defects or who are ap-

parently mentally subnormal are studied by the local child guidance clinic, and the clinic's recommendations are an incorporated part of the child's physical examination. Each child is weighed upon admission.

Receiving Department. A separate cottage serves as a receiving department and as a hospital for bed-patients. The purpose of the Receiving and Hospital Cottage is threefold. First, it provides a place in which to quarantine new arrivals for a period long enough for them to develop an infectious or contagious disease to which they have been exposed prior to admission. The quarantine period lasts two weeks. Secondly, the receiving department provides time in which to carry out routine medical measures, such as physical examination and the various tests. Thirdly, the building provides hospital facilities for the care of the children who become ill in the institution.

Every effort is made to avoid contact of children in the receiving department with children outside thereof. Under no circumstances may a child in the institution enter the receiving department for work or for any other reason than that of actual illness. No visiting children under sixteen years of age may enter this department. No visitors are admitted either to see individual patients or for inspection purposes without the permission of the Sister Superior. When a child is brought to the institution, the parent or guardian is instructed that no visitors are allowed to see the child for two weeks.

The children in the building who show no evidence of contagious disease may go to the general dining building for meals, but must keep strictly to their own dining room therein and must not come within ten feet of the other children in the institution. They are forbidden to go to the kitchen for food, and dishes, towels, wash cloths, pans, etc., are kept separate from like material of the other dining rooms. These children may also go to church, provided they do not come within ten feet of the other children in the institution. A section downstairs in the chapel is set aside for them and they enter and leave by a door not used by the other children. Children in the receiving cottage do not go to school. In addition, they do not receive medical treatment except in the receiving building itself.

Should a contagious disease occur in the receiving building, any children who had been discharged therefrom prior to the outbreak but who had been exposed during their residence therein, are brought back to the receiving department. Exceptions to this rule are made only in the case of children whose record shows that they have already had the contagious disease in question.

Books, toys, and furnishings may not be removed from the receiving department without first being rendered free from disease bacteria. Laundry may go in the routine way and be washed with other laundry of the institution without being submitted to any special process, unless such process is specially ordered by the doctor.

At the conclusion of the quarantine on admission, children are considered discharged therefrom without special orders from the doctor, (a) unless they have just been exposed to a contagious disease that their record shows they have not had; (b) unless they have a discharge from the ears or other part of the body; (c) unless they have skin disease that is infectious; (d) unless they have a respiratory infection, a cold, cough, or the like. In other words they do not leave the receiving cottage until it is safe for them to mingle with other children without danger of spreading disease.

Residence. The medical care of the children during residence has two phases. One deals with the ambulatory cases through the dispensary, and the other with the bed-patients in the hospital or infirmary. The dispensary is maintained in the school building for the ambulatory cases, while hospital facilities are available in the combined receiving and hospital cottage for bed-patients.

Dispensary. The dispensary work includes first aid measures, the subsequent care of minor surgical conditions, the treatment of non-infectious eye, ear, nose, mouth, and throat conditions, the application of washes and ointments in non-infectious diseases, and the training, exercise or massage of such parts of the body as advised by the doctors. All children are re-examined twice yearly, and whenever they make any medical complaints. These semi-annual re-examinations as well as such routine measures as vaccination, Schick testing and the like, are carried out in the dispensary, except on the children

who are being detained in quarantine. These measures are started in the receiving department and continued in the dispensary. Health education and advice, health drives, health classes and the like center in and are supervised by the dispensary.

Each child is weighed once every month, and children underweight are weighed every week and also examined by the house physician. Underweight children are put in a special class and given extra food and rest as outlined by the physician. Weight curves are carefully kept upon each child and if he does not gain weight, hospitalization for more detailed examination is made. Special treatment is also given for poor posture.

Children are not given periodic mental examinations. Those, however, who show symptoms of mental deficiency are referred to the local child guidance clinic for examination and treatment.

The dispensary is so arranged that it can be divided by curtains into four or five compartments at any time, the children thus having privacy for medical examination. In the dispensary there is a dental chair and fairly complete dental equipment. In the dispensary, too, are kept all the medical records. The dispensary itself is a large room in the school building which was originally intended for a class room, but which has been temporarily set aside for the present purpose.

The dispensary is open most of the time, and any child who receives cuts or bruises or who is feeling badly is sent by the sister in charge to the dispensary, or just reports or goes of his own volition, any time he pleases without routine and without formality. The children go to the dispensary during recess times, at noon, after school, or nearly any time. Record, however, is kept of every visit and of the medical attention given the child; even of such minor things as, for instance, the application of iodine.

Sisters report the slightest cold among the children. They also report loss in weight, night sweats, chilling, weakness of any kind, etc. Any chronic cough of any child in the institution is investigated, and the individual's reaction to temperature, pulse, etc., is reported. X-rays are taken as needed.

Hospital. The infirmary or hospital is in the same building with the receiving department. The scope of the work therein

includes the care of bed-patients and of convalescents. No patient is discharged until the consent of the doctor is given and the signature of the latter written on the record. Every child with a fever is strictly isolated from the other children until the cause of such fever is determined. Temperature is taken every four hours while the child is in bed, and twice a day when the child is up and until discharged. All patients must remain in bed until ordered up by the doctor. An admission bath is given to all children upon admission to the hospital, unless they appear too ill to stand it. A nose and throat culture is taken, by the nurse in charge, of all children having a membrane upon the tonsils when admitted. Orders for medication and special treatments must be given by the doctor on the medical record. Temperatures on all bed-patients are recorded and charted as taken. All children who sustain fractures or sprains are immediately reported to the sister in charge of the hospital or dispensary, so that the proper steps may be taken to avoid any legal complications. Cases requiring specialized type of investigation or treatment are taken to one or other of the three hospitals in the neighboring city.

Records. Medical records are centralized in the dispensary. There is a Kardex for each group in the institution which immediately visualizes for the sister in the dispensary the physical condition of the children in each group. Different colors are used for different physical defects. In the Kardex, there is a small card with the name of each child showing date of examination, physical defects, and date of correction. In addition to the chart used for the initial physical examination, and to the height-and-weight chart, the institution uses a bedside medical record form and a discharged medical record form. As stated above, note is made of even minor treatments in the dispensary and is entered on the child's medical record as a treatment. A monthly report is made by the dispensary, including total number of treatments given, total number of physical examinations, and so forth. In the hospital, a medical record of each patient is kept while the patient is confined, and a record is made of everything done for the patient. (# 66)

B. STAFF

The basic medical personnel of the institution consists of supervising physician, dentist, and nurse. In addition, the services of

specialists are called upon as needed. The following are examples of staffs that may serve as illustrations.

Supervising physician, on yearly salary, who comes daily between 11:00 and 12:00 and can be reached from his home at any time in twenty minutes; dentist, on monthly salary, who gives two full mornings a week; resident lay registered nurse, on monthly salary; private office services of eye, ear, nose and throat specialist readily obtainable; orthopedic needs watched by R. N., and children with such needs sent to specialist at local hospital; two practical nurses; one woman in charge of children on reception, and maid in charge of convalescent dining room. (# 11)

The services of the following are available at any time and are rendered gratis: six physicians and surgeons; four dentists, and senior students of local dental school working under immediate supervision of the dean of school; sister R. N., supervisor of infirmary and health work, assisted by another trained nurse; sister director of habit clinic; lay director of physical training. The services of specialists are available in following fields; eye, ear, nose, and throat, chest, heart, skin, communicable diseases, orthopedics, bacteriology, urinalysis, psychiatry and neurology, psychology. (# 39)

Supervising physician, on monthly salary, who spends three mornings a week in institution. He is assisted, in the formulation of policies and in special services, by a staff consisting of surgeon, dentist, and specialists in nose and throat, eye, skin, and orthopedics. The nose and throat specialist spends one morning a week in the institution. The dentist comes twice a week. The eye specialist comes once a month. Other members of the staff visit any time there is special need for their services. The staff is also assisted by a sister who is a trained nurse and pharmacist, and by two nurses in training from a local hospital. (# 68)

Supervising physician, paid, visits the institution every Saturday, is subject to call in emergency, and at times treats children in his office; dentist, paid by hour, spends from 9:00 to 12:00 a. m. Thursdays in the institution and comes oftener if service be required. The services of specialists are available on call as follows: surgery; eye, ear, nose and throat; Wassermann tests; T. B., chest and lungs; orthopedics; skin diseases; oral

surgery. Every one on the hospital staff who has anything at all to do with the children's health has the highest professional standing. (# 72)

Supervising physician, paid, comes when called; dentist visits four mornings a week; one of the sisters is especially trained in psychiatry and renders services to the children as they are admitted. The services of orthopedic surgeon, clinical psychologists and other specialists are available through one of the local hospitals. (# 79)

1. *Supervising Physician.* The ideal, particularly in larger institutions, is a full-time resident supervising physician. But financial limitations have not permitted our Catholic institutions to attain this ideal, although, in one of them at least, such a plan is in prospect for the near future. The full-time services of a competent physician will cost an institution \$5,000 to \$6,000 a year. An incompetent, inexperienced, or superannuated full-time man at an appreciably lower salary is a poor substitute for a competent man on a part-time volunteer or paid basis. Practically speaking, although the ideal of full-time paid service should not be lost sight of, for the present and immediate future we have to choose between volunteer and part-time services.

While the volunteer plan prevails in most of our institutions, the drift seems to be toward the part-time paid plan. Many institutions are situated very near hospitals, or else have established very close relations with the members of the local medical profession, so that the results obtained under the volunteer system are of a very high order. But the conviction is seemingly gaining ground that the volunteer system, which works so well under exceptionally favorable conditions, is undesirable for the country at large.

The demands upon the good-nature and charity of the volunteer physician may be so great as to amount to imposition. They may leave him insufficient time to devote to his own pay patients. Furthermore, the institution may often hesitate to call upon a busy man, unless the case be quite urgent. In some instances, volunteer services may, after a certain length of time, become perfunctory. On the other hand, under the part-time paid plan, definite hours for visits can oftener be more easily established, and consequently more regular and systematic service be given.

To sum up, while the ideal is the full-time supervising physician, practically the choice must, for the present and immediate future, be between the volunteer and part-time paid plans. The drift, for the reasons outlined, seems to be toward the part-time paid plan, although local conditions may well justify and commend the volunteer system.

Two methods of part-time remuneration are possible: a straight yearly salary, and payment by call or hour. Some prefer the latter method. The amount of remuneration should not be too low. The exact figure must depend somewhat on local conditions. The following quotation is incorporated by way of suggestion:

“A physician giving 12 hours a week to an institution is entitled to receive not less than \$1,800 a year for his services. Smaller institutions should pay a proportionate amount, according to the hours of service.

A book should be supplied for the physician in which he shall register each visit, giving the date and the length of time spent at the Home” (*Manual of Health Supervision in Child-Caring Homes*, Cath. Char. Archdioc. New York, 1930, p. 8).

Still more important than the matter of payment is that of the amount of time given. Here again it is not possible to set down iron rules, nor does uniform practice prevail in our institutions. The following excerpt, from the report of one of the two institutions whose medical programs were given at length in the early part of the chapter, seems significant:

The physician in charge feels that in view of the great turnover in population and of the size thereof,—the population is 178,—the institution really needs a full-time physician. He is now devoting three mornings a week to the institution and is also on call. The dentist feels that in view of the great volume of work to be done with the children's teeth and of the short time at his disposal, it is impossible to plan out a complete dental program. During the three mornings a week he gives to the institution, he can attend to all the extractions and to the important defects, but can rarely cover the essentials in repair work. He emphasized the fact that many of the older boys needed very detailed attention. For some of them he has put in from eighteen to twenty fillings. (# 66)

It need hardly be emphasized that the choice of the supervising physician should be given the most serious consideration. Upon him depends very largely the health program and conditions of the institution. The following suggestions have been made in comments upon the provisional draft of the Manual:

In selecting the supervising physician the chief points to consider are:

- a. He must be a well-trained man, preferably a pediatrician with wide experience;
- b. He should have a good reputation for ability and training, among the public and in professional circles;
- c. He should be a mature man, of highest moral character;
- d. The work should appeal to him as a hobby—not merely as a job. (# 331)

It is well, both for the girls and for the institution, that the services of a woman physician be available for older girls. This comment implies, not that the supervising physician in a girls' institution should necessarily be a woman, but that the services of a woman physician should at least be available. (# 330, # 331)

2. *Dentist.* The amount of time that needs to be given by the dentist will depend chiefly on the size of the population and on the rapidity of turnover. As ample provision of time as possible needs to be made. In a good many of our institutions, particularly the smaller ones, dental service is given in the dentist's office. Most of our institutions feel strongly that the giving of dental service within the institution itself is a more satisfactory plan. This plan tends to insure more regular service. It also saves the time and complications involved in taking the children to the dentist's office. The relative merits of the volunteer and the paid system in regard to dental work are about the same as they are in regard to medical care by the supervising physician.

“Modern standards of dental care recommend the services of a dental hygienist, who has been trained to examine and clean teeth. She records her findings on the care for the dentist, who does only filling and extraction work. The services of a dental hygienist can be secured for 75c an hour.

The salary of a dentist attending a Child-Caring Home, if he does only fillings and extractions, should be not less than \$3.00 an hour. If he does examinations and cleaning in addition to fillings and extractions, his services may be secured for \$2.50 an hour" (Manual of Health Supervision for Child-Caring Homes, C. C. N. Y., 9-10).

Several of our institutions have been able to make special arrangements regarding dental work, which have turned out very satisfactorily and which may serve as suggestions to other institutions.

Provision for dentistry work has been arranged for in the past year by the local Welfare Union, which supplies a dentist who comes to the institution and attends to all the children. (# 30)

A dental clinic is held once a year at the institution by the Board of Health. The visiting staff, consisting of two dentists and a dental hygiene nurse, bring all their supplies with them, including their dental chair and full equipment, and remain at the institution two or three weeks until all the work is done. During the year the institution is free to send children to the Board of Health dentists or to other dentists who volunteer their services. (# 27)

A university near the institution has a Class-A dental school. Each year a number of the senior graduates are assigned to the institution for practical work in dentistry under the immediate supervision of the dean of the dental school or of one of his deputies. These young men report at 8:30 a. m. on Tuesday and Thursday of each week and work in the dental clinic of the institution until 4:30 p. m., having one hour for lunch which is served to them by the institution. Any child requiring special treatment is referred to the clinic of the dental school. The institution furnishes and pays for all dental supplies. The superior states, "If this invaluable service had to be paid for we could never have it". During the vacation period, a dentist spends every Monday and Thursday from 8:30 a. m. to 4:30 p. m. in the institution. It may be added that the dental clinic of the institution is thoroughly equipped with chair space in the regular operating room and that the cabinet contains full supplies of dental instruments. (# 39)

3. *Nurse.* That it is eminently desirable, or even indispensable,

to have a trained registered nurse in residence, is the firm conviction of our institution authorities. In most of our institutions, it has been possible to secure the services either of a sister or of a lay woman who is an R. N. A full-time practical nurse cannot take the place of a full-time trained nurse. Nor can part-time service given by visiting nurses take the place of full-time service. The additional nursing service procured through the following plan is equally valuable to the student nurses themselves, and the plan could be adopted elsewhere with profit both to the institution and to the training school.

By special arrangement with a local hospital, each of the nurses in training at the hospital spends two months of her third year of training at the institution. The State Board of Health recognizes these two months as part of the nurses' training in pediatrial work. (# 68)

4. *Specialists.* As regards specialists, either on the institution staff or otherwise available when necessity arises, the chief ones the institution needs to call upon are: orthopedist, ophthalmologist, specialist in ear, nose and throat, psychiatrist, and psychologist. Further data on specialist services will be given later on in the present chapter.

5. *Use of Community Health Resources.* It is usually possible, particularly in our larger cities, for the institution to avail itself of many community resources for the children's health. A large number of our institutions are located very close to hospitals or else can call upon the local hospital or hospitals for many types of service. In addition to the facilities available in the inpatient and outpatient departments of the hospitals, use may be made as well of the various types of clinics not connected with hospitals. For many kinds of service the local Board of Health will gladly help, as it is doing in a number of cities. Medical consultation and treatment can often be secured through Catholic Charities Bureaus, through Charity Organization Societies, and through local organizations, such as the Visiting Nurse Association, Tuberculosis Association, and so forth. The present study shows that our institutions are availing themselves of these opportunities to a very wide extent. From the present drift, it seems probable that in the future much

further use of them for the benefit of the institution children will be made than has been made in the past.

6. *Organization and Responsibilities.* The medical program of the institution naturally heads up in the supervising physician. He is in turn responsible to the superintendent to whom he should submit periodical reports. Further organization of the staff under his supervision, and definite assignment of duties and responsibilities, will depend on conditions prevalent in the particular institution. The importance of such definite assignment of duties and responsibilities is well recognized and does not need to be stressed. A good many of our institutions have found it valuable to have a large part of their health program under the care of an institutional health department or of the trained nurse in charge of the receiving department or infirmary. The value of such focusing of general responsibility under a single head, who is held definitely responsible for the smooth working of the health program, is obvious enough. Such centralization should not, of course, imply the discouragement of initiative or the weakening of individual responsibility among the other members of the institution staff.

During transitional periods, it may be necessary for outside social agencies to undertake a part of the responsibility for the children's medical care during residence. Ordinarily, however, such responsibility should clearly rest upon the institution staff itself. And all health records of the child should be kept there. A division of responsibility, such as obtains when an outside agency undertakes in any large measure the task of caring for the medical needs of the child in residence, should at the most be a temporary and provisional measure. The full responsibility should be put upon the institution at the earliest possible moment.

7. *Health of Staff and Employees.* The medical staff should have the supervision of the health not only of the children but also of the institution staff and employees. When new employees are taken on, they should be examined for possible evidence of contagious disease, particularly of tuberculosis and venereal diseases. The importance of such examination and supervision is becoming more and more keenly recognized.

C. ADMISSION

The medical program may be divided into the admission program and the residence program. Under admission will be discussed the problems of isolation and of pre-admission and admission examinations; under residence, follow-up work and re-examinations, and the care of ambulatory cases through the dispensary and of bed patients through the infirmary or hospital.

I. RECEIVING DEPARTMENT AND ISOLATION

The general trend of our institutions is toward one type or other of isolation at the time of admission. Practice, however, is very far from uniform, either as regards the type and duration of isolation or as regards even isolation itself.

Some of our institutions, in which the health record is exceptionally fine and in which outbreaks of contagious diseases have been quite uncommon, do not have a real isolation period at all, but rely instead for protection on a very thorough physical examination prior to or immediately upon admission. They trust, further, to the residence medical program and to high standards of hygienic care to check the entrance or spread of contagion among the resident children. Moreover, in view of the fact that such a large number of our institutions permit quite free outside contacts by the children during residence, the admission quarantine in such institutions might appear somewhat less imperative and less efficacious than in institutions where outside contacts during residence are infrequent.

On the other hand, many of our institutions, including those that permit a maximum of outside contacts, feel that the isolation period has very distinct values of its own, notwithstanding some drawbacks. In more cases than one, institutions have gone along for years, without an admission quarantine and without grave epidemics resulting from this lack, until they have been caught by contagion introduced through new admissions. More than one institution has, after years of immunity, been led, through bitter experience to inaugurate an admission quarantine.

As we gather from the present study, our institutions that have an admission quarantine feel from their experience that such quarantine has the following four chief advantages:

a. Children entering the institution may be in the incubation period of a disease which not even the most thorough physical examination will reveal. If the child takes its place at once among the resident population, an epidemic, with its added cares, interruptions, setbacks, quarantining, suffering, toll of health or life, and aftermath, may easily be started. Where, as in an institution, the outbreak of an epidemic has such grave consequences, every possible preventive measure should be taken.

b. The isolation period affords ample opportunity for physical examinations, tests, immunizations, and so forth, that are an essential part of admission routine and that require time. It also facilitates the inauguration of corrective measures and follow-up care for the child.

c. The isolation period gives the child time to become adjusted emotionally to institutional ways and living. It is true that homesickness may develop during the period, but homesickness may likewise develop if the child takes his place at once among the resident population. Moreover, the personality and interest of the head and staff of the receiving department, and the provision of equipment and facilities for the child's leisure hours during isolation, go far to make the quarantine period one of at least relative contentment for the child. The period may be capitalized as an opportunity for individual attention that does much to overcome homesickness and to help the child begin life in the institution happily.

d. The period may also be utilized for intensive individual study and observation of the child's religious status, his general habits, and his mental and academic conditions. Thus a better beginning can be made toward such corrective and constructive training as may be required.

The following are illustrations of the types of admission policies in use :

a. *Optional Isolation*

A thorough physical examination is given all children before admission or immediately upon admission. Older children are

placed at once with the resident group, unless it be found necessary to send them to the contagious ward of the infirmary. Children under six years of age undergo routine quarantine, as they are considered more apt to develop contagion and to have skin disease. Such quarantine lasts at most three weeks, and not that long if infirmary treatment is considered by the physician to be more desirable. (# 14)

When the children are examined before admission, they are, if necessary, immediately sent to a local hospital for isolation. (# 27)

Children are thoroughly examined upon admission and are kept isolated, if the physician so orders, in the contagious or non-contagious department of the institution infirmary. (# 72)

When it is not found feasible to establish routine admission quarantine, the following minimum precautions would seem to be called for: (1) A very thorough physical examination, either before admission or upon admission or both, together with a history of the child's previous illnesses and recent exposures; (2) close observation for preliminary symptoms of disease during early days of residence; (3) the availability of isolation facilities for special cases either within the institution or at some local hospital; (4) adequate medical and hygienic care of the resident population.

b. Routine Isolation

(1) Admission Periodically

New children are received only on the 1st and 15th of each month, and are subject to a fifteen-day admission quarantine. The sister feels that it is a hazard to the resident group to admit new children among this group who have been mingling with quarantine children admitted at a later date. The children admitted in a body on the 1st and 15th of each month are kept absolutely isolated from the resident group during the period of fifteen days. (# 22)

New children are received only once every two weeks. (# 68)

The advantage of this plan, as stated by the sister just cited, is obvious. Under it, however, provision has to be made for individual children who must enter the institution between the set dates for the entrance of the groups. Such emergencies are not numerous.

They may often be met by admitting the child to an isolated room in the institution infirmary and keeping him there until the next new group enters. The second of the above institutions handles this problem in the following way:

The social worker connected with the institution makes a careful study of the resources available in a particular case, and, if at all possible, the child is kept in his own home until the new detention period is ready to begin. Naturally, emergency cases take precedence in making up a quota for admission. In her efforts to keep the child in his own home until time for admission, she makes full use of relatives, godparents, friends, or neighbors, and, in extreme cases, has paid a reliable neighbor to take charge of a household until admission could be arranged. This policy has proved most salutary in preventing precipitate placement, during what appeared to be an insurmountable emergency but which turned out to be a condition that could be remedied. In fact, often a relative or friend who thought it impossible to take the child has been willing to take him temporarily, and has later found it possible to continue keeping him.

In rural districts, use is frequently made of the county children's home for temporary placement, when the child has to be removed immediately from his home and when no arrangement can be made with relatives or friends for temporary care.

In the city, we have a temporary home (or homes) where children awaiting placement in institutions can be accommodated for whatever period may be necessary. In one of these homes, pre-school children are kept; in the other, children from five years up. Both homes are also used as day nurseries, and thus take care of a certain type of children who might otherwise be placed in institutions. Such temporary homes may not be available in all cities, but we feel their establishment should be an objective wherever any considerable amount of child-placing must be done.

In the nine years during which we have operated under the system of bi-monthly group entrances, we have never found that this admission schedule has worked a hardship. On the other hand, we feel it has accomplished much good beyond its first purpose of providing a physically effective quarantine. It is our experience that an ever-present latchstring is a con-

stant temptation, even to very scrupulous social workers, to rush children into the institution, and so to end their labors for an indefinite period,—too indefinite in most cases. Any machinery that slows up action is conducive to a more complete study of the case and to a try-out of possible alternatives to institutional placement which may be looked upon at first sight as impossible. In numerous cases, adjustments which were first considered impossible have turned out to be quite feasible.

If there is no regular period of admission, we do not see how it is possible to maintain adequate quarantine, as a new child entering the quarantine department renders uncertain all the children with whom he comes in contact. Case work has not, we feel, reached the perfection which would justify doing away with quarantine. We have had children come to us directly from contacts with measles, whooping cough, etc., about which we learned within an hour after their admission, and yet the worker either did not know of this or did not record it on the physical examination blank. So, until the millennium in case work dawns, we shall feel safe only with a very real detention period, and we do not see any way of maintaining this unless we have regular periods of admission. (# 68 and # 358)

(2) *Admission at any Time*

All children are strictly isolated for fourteen days following admission. (# 11 and # 79)

Children are strictly isolated following admission for eighteen days. During this period they live in a separate building on the grounds. (# 6)

Children under ten years of age are at admission held in quarantine for three weeks; those over ten, for two weeks. Formerly all of the children were held for only two weeks, but the sisters have found that by a three weeks' quarantine for children under ten, a great deal of contagious disease has been eliminated. The day before the visit was made during the present study to the institution's receiving home, which is located in the city quite a distance from the institution itself, a little girl came down with the measles on the 15th day of her residence at the receiving home. She was sent to a local hospital. The other children in the home at the time had to

remain for three weeks longer and no more children were admitted to the receiving home during that three-week period. If a child, while in quarantine in the receiving home, develops a contagious disease, the institution proper is immediately notified, and any of the children who have left the receiving home for the institution during the preceding two or three weeks are immediately isolated in the infirmary of the institution. This last phase of the isolation program has, in the experience of the sisters, helped appreciably in checking the spread of contagion. The sisters do not feel it necessary to quarantine children over ten years of age for longer than two weeks, as they have found them by experience to be less susceptible. (# 60 and # 67)

Under the foregoing plans of routine isolation for admissions at any time, most of the danger of infection from new admissions is obviated, particularly where the isolation period is for three weeks. But the system is not infallible. Children, for instance, just about to complete their isolation period may come into contact with a newcomer just entering quarantine, who is in the incubation period of a disease, and they may be discharged from quarantine into the resident population. In fact, on the plan of admission at any time, there is no technically infallible system except that of individual cubicle isolation, such as is in vogue in some contagious hospitals. If we continue to adhere to the system of admissions at any time, we may, in the long run, have to come to the plan of individual cubicle isolation, but the practical difficulties in the way of its establishment in child-caring homes are many. Some of these difficulties have been outlined by Dr. Toomey (Cath. Char. Rev., Sept. 1928, xii, 246-47). From the mental and emotional standpoint, still other disadvantages appear to present themselves.

Recommendations. Practically,—and it is from the practical standpoint that the problem has to be faced,—we may, in view of the experience of our institutions offer the following recommendations:

- (a) Routine isolation for all new admissions.
- (b) A straight three-week isolation period for all, or else a three-week period for younger children (under about ten years of age) and a two-week period for older ones. Most contagious diseases have an incubation period of less than two weeks, but some have a longer one.

- (c) Admission *periodically*, where local conditions and resources make the plan possible. In most localities, such periodical admission would appear quite feasible, through some or all of the measures suggested on a preceding page. Where it is not at all feasible at present, efforts may well be directed toward supplying such personnel and resources as will make it so.
- (d) If admissions are made at any time and one of the children develops a contagious disease while in quarantine, two measures are necessary.
 - i. All children in the receiving department should be detained therein for two (or three) weeks after the date on which the contagious disease appears:
 - ii. All children who have been discharged from the receiving department after the arrival of the infected child should be isolated in the infirmary or elsewhere.
- (e) Where admissions are made at any time, it would appear advisable, if institutional conditions and facilities at all permit, to divide the receiving department into two or more units. Under this plan, if a contagious disease breaks out in one unit, there would not be a necessity for closing the whole receiving department to new admissions and so tying up inbound traffic for long periods.

It goes without saying that during the period of quarantine, isolation should be real and strict, otherwise quarantine is not quarantine at all. A number of practical suggestions for a detailed technique of maintaining strict isolation have been outlined in the second of the two medical programs given at the beginning of the present chapter.

The receiving department itself ordinarily serves its purpose best where a separate building or cottage is reserved for it. This however is not always possible. A section of one of the buildings may be set aside as a receiving department, and this is the plan in most of our institutions. The number and capacity of the sleeping rooms will depend on the size of the institution and of its intake.

The dining room for the isolated children is ordinarily in the receiving department itself, although the food may be sent to the receiving department from the main kitchen, with such special precautions as may be called for in the case of an epidemic. The receiving department also requires its own wash rooms, baths, and toilets. Provision of a play room, with games, toys, dolls, books and other leisure-time equipment, is of value for preventing homesickness and for filling the children's leisure time. An outdoor playground, separate from the playground of the resident population, is also very valuable if it can be arranged for. Where possible, too, a sun porch for the isolated children is well worth while, from both the hygienic and the recreational standpoints. Where the receiving department is in fairly close proximity to the quarters occupied by the resident children, diligent supervision is ordinarily required lest the two groups come in contact with each other.

2. EXAMINATIONS

The urgent and imperative necessity of preadmission physical examination or of examination immediately upon admission is so widely recognized by our institutions, that it does not need to be emphasized. Just one illustrative proof of the need for such entrance examinations may be offered, from the results of the physical examinations of 852 dependent children by the Cleveland Children's Bureau prior to their admission into institutions or foster homes. Of the 852 children, 55% were found with dental caries; 53% with goitre; 22.6% with malnutrition; 19.4% with eye disturbances; 14.4% with diseased genitalia; 12.9% with diseased tonsils; 4.8% with obvious nervous diseases; 64% with other defects (Cath. Char. Review, Dec. 1924, viii, 367).

The admission examination is also a protection to the institution, should later defects or ailments in the child be charged to neglect on the part of the institution. (# 201)

In some of our institutions the physical examination is given after a preadmission examination; in others, immediately after admission to the institution. In some institutions, both preadmission and entrance examinations are required. The preadmission examination helps discover such defects or maladies as require hospitalization or other treatment before admission to the institution and

such cases as need placement other than in the ordinary child-caring home. The examination should be made, not by the family physician, but by the physician associated with the institution.

The examination, whether preadmission or entrance, should be a *thorough, stripped examination*. A short, superficial examination does not lay a proper foundation for corrective and remedial measures for the child himself and does not adequately protect the other children in residence. The examination is best made by a physician who is specially trained or experienced in children's work. "Girls over six years of age should be properly draped by the nurse, who shall assist the doctor at all examinations" (Manual of Health Supervision in Child-Caring Homes, C. C. N. Y., 8).

The detailed list of items upon which information is sought regarding the child on admission differs in minor points from institution to institution, and blanks used differ accordingly. There is however full agreement on the main points. The following list of items, as in use in one of our institutions, may be recommended as one that has proved very satisfactory without being unwieldy.

Name of *child*; [sex]; date and place of birth; dates of admission and of examination. Name of examining *physician*.

Family history. Number of cases, and members affected (note deaths), by alcoholism, venereal diseases, tuberculosis, rheumatism, insanity, heart disease, epilepsy, hemophilia, asthma, joint and bone diseases, cancer, other diseases.

Previous diseases of the child—check only those applicable and give the approximate year; convulsions, [encephalitis], coryza, scaling of hands and feet, rickets, scarlatina, diphtheria, pertussis, measles, German measles, mumps, chicken pox, croup, marasmus, rheumatism, tonsillitis, pneumonia, pleurisy, influenza, typhoid fever, poliomyelitis, [cerebrospinal meningitis], chorea, [syphilis], vaginitis, diseased joints, malaria, small pox, epilepsy, tendency to vomiting, tendency to diarrhoea, tendency to constipation, tendency to skin diseases, earache, discharge from ears, inflammation of eyes.

Physical examination. Weight, height, nutrition, general development. Vaccination, whether or not it took and date. Skin diseases: marks and scars. Scalp: inflamed, pediculus.

Fontanels: open, closed. Neck: cervical glands, thyroid. Head: balance, position. Chest: shape, deformities. Lungs: inspection, palpation, percussion, auscultation. Heart: apex beat, auscultation, rate, blood pressure. Abdomen: liver, kidneys, spleen, appendix. Hernia. Genito-urinary: male—normal, phimosis, hydrocele; female—normal, discharge, vaginitis. Rectum: fistula, fissure. Spine: curvatures. Extremities: normal, deformities. Gait: well balanced, shambling. Eyes: inflammation, discharge, abnormality, vision. Ears: discharge, deformity, hearing. Throat: tonsils, adenoids. Nose: discharge, deformity, stoppage. Summary of tuberculous symptoms—(check if any): lungs, glands, joints, skin, organs.

Recommendations. Surgery—tonsillectomy, adenoidectomy, circumcision. Further examinations, tests, counts—X-ray, fluoscopic, analyses, etc.

Laboratory Tests: Wassermann, vaginal smear, nose and throat cultures. (# 88)

On the blank of which the foregoing is a summary, ample spaces are left not only for physical examination including laboratory tests, but also for the medical history of the child and of his family. This history is of very real value for the medical care of the child during residence.

Some of our institutions find it of distinct advantage to obtain data, at the time of the physical examination, on the infancy history and on the general health and health habits of the child. In one institution, for example, information on the following points is secured:

Birth and infancy. Born at full term; labor; conditions at birth; weight; breast-fed, number of months; artificial feeding, kind; month of first tooth, walking, talking.

General health and habits. Frequent colds, cough, headache, indigestion, enuresis; how long underweight; bowels regular, how often laxatives used; sleep—mouth open, quiet, restless, snoring; goes to bed at what time, gets up at what time, windows open; discipline, activities; habits as to tea, coffee, candy, milk, cereal, vegetables, fruit, fast or slow eating. (# 18)

A detailed discussion of the various items to be included in the physical examinations does not seem advisable. References to the standard blanks that epitomize the most successful institutional experience in the field will be given later in the present chapter in the section on Records, and in the bibliography.

The child's condition should not be discussed any more than is necessary in his presence, as some children easily develop hypochondria. (# 55)

A thorough dental examination is, of course, routine for all children at admission. The orthopedic, and eye, ear, nose and throat examinations are best made by specialists. Height-and-weight records, cautiously interpreted in the light of other more important and more reliable indices of nutrition, are of basic importance.

Mental examinations prior to or at time of admission are proving of distinct value in our institutions, particularly for the mental, moral, and spiritual welfare of the child. They must be given, however, as previously noted, only by those trained and experienced in their administration and interpretation. Further data on this subject are given in the chapters on Mental Health and Education.

In connection with the general physical examination, certain laboratory tests and inoculations are ordinarily given as a matter of routine. Others are optional, upon recommendation by the examining physician. The following tendencies among our institutions are noted from the study. The Schick (or Park) test for diphtheria, with the administration of toxin-antitoxin, or toxoid is tending to become routine. The Dick test for scarlet fever is being used in an increasing number of institutions. Vaccination against smallpox is generally routine, with vaccination against whooping cough and typhoid less common. Nose and throat cultures tend to be routine, as does also urinalysis. Von Pirquet or intradermal test for tuberculous infection is made upon recommendation. Wassermanns and smears are more commonly optional, but the tendency is toward making both of them routine.

The efficacy of the Schick test and of toxin-antitoxin or toxoid for diphtheria may now be considered as definitely established. The same, is, of course, true for vaccination against smallpox. In both cases the hazards are so slight as to be negligible.

The present status of the Dick technique and of whooping cough vaccination is less clear. While the Dick test for scarlet fever is recognized as a reliable test of the child's immunity or susceptibility to the disease, the efficacy or degree of efficacy of the vaccine and treatment is still under discussion. Somewhat the same may be said of whooping cough vaccine; it apparently has some measure of at least temporary efficacy. From a number of reports received from specialists and institutions, the outlook for important improvements in the prevention and cure of both scarlet fever and whooping cough seems promising. It is recommended that institutions keep close watch upon developments in this field.

The Health Department of New York City does not at present recommend whooping cough vaccine. But we take the attitude that, inasmuch as it may help, it may be worth while trying. It does no harm. The Dick test is, of course, reliable as a test of immunity or susceptibility. We are working now on a serum that will actually protect the child, as toxin-antitoxin does in the case of diphtheria. (# 360)

Regarding the treatment of whooping cough with vaccine, we have no more confirming data than anyone else, but feel that it should be used in view of the last report, now only a month old, which showed in a fairly large series a ninety per cent reduction in the complications of whooping cough following the use of the vaccine. Our feeling about the scarlet fever serum is this: there is no question about the striking change in the temperature chart following its use therapeutically; there is, however, grave doubt that any good it accomplishes offsets a severe reaction to the serum used at present. Final judgment on this must wait several years more. All "green" sera carry with them so much in the way of reaction that their possible benefit is always marred. This will not be true in a few years, and then it will be possible to pass a more worthwhile judgment. We are not using the ordinary prophylactic sera. We have, however, on a series of about two hundred children used Larsen's Serum. It is claimed that this has several advantages: reactions to it are negligible; it can be given in a single injection; it is combined with diphtheria toxin-antitoxin. While it is admitted that children do not seem to acquire protection if the Dick test is used as a criterion, it is claimed that the incidence of scarlet fever is reduced

ninety percent. Our experience with it extends over about two years and only over about two hundred children, but so far these claims seem to be substantiated. This, of course, is not yet on the market, and it was possible to get it only through the courtesy of Doctor Larsen. (# 359)

General experience has definitely shown the importance of throat and nose cultures. The same may be said of urinalysis.

Regarding the Wassermann (and Kahn) and vaginal smear, while both the health of the individual child and the protection of the resident population appear to call for them as routine, certain minor questions arise regarding administration, of the smear in particular. The taking of the blood specimen for the Wassermann can easily be done, without embarrassment or other complications resulting, in the course of the general physical examination. Regarding the smears, some of our institutions feel that these are made best at a hospital rather than in the institution itself. Other institutions, however, do not find this procedure necessary. If the Wassermann and smear are made a routine feature of the admission physical examination, the possibilities of embarrassment or of emotional upset to the child and the hazard of resentment on the part of parents or guardians are reduced to a minimum, or, if we may judge from current experience, practically to zero. It is perhaps unnecessary to add that great caution must be used in the interpretation of the results of simple tests for venereal infection in view of the considerable fallibility that attaches to them.

The following suggestion has been offered and is presented for consideration. Would it be advisable, as less apt to occasion embarrassment or emotional disturbance, to have the smear taken by the R. N. at the time of the admission bath? (# 331)

As regards tuberculous infection, the two more common tests are the Von Pirquet skin test, and the Mantoux, intracutaneous, or intradermal test. The former, though a little more easily administered, is being superseded, in many places completely, by the latter, which is somewhat more sensitive and has a quantitative value. The test, even the intradermal, is easily administered. Positive reactors to either of the two tuberculin tests should be further studied in the light of X-ray findings, symptoms, and general physical and

laboratory examinations for the elimination of other causative factors. Our available data on the prevalence of tuberculous infection and of tuberculosis among children would suggest the advisability of making the tuberculin test routine on admission. The most recent study, by McCain, of 25,048 children under fifteen years of age, actually in school, gives the following results: 22.59%, nearly one fourth, reacted positively to the intracutaneous test, indicating tuberculous infection calling for precautionary measures; 7.62% of these, or 1.72% of the total number tested, were classified in the light of further study as having demonstrable tuberculosis, chiefly curable tracheobronchial, and 11.91%, or 2.69% of the total number tested, as suspicious (*The Southern Medical Journal*, Apr. 1929, xxii, 310-20).

The incidence of the positive tuberculin tests will vary according to social background, geographical location, etc., of the group. Among the children under fourteen tested for the St. Vincent de Paul Society of Detroit, the incidence has been eleven and one-half per cent. We do not feel there should be any option on the doing of a tuberculin test. It is quite impossible to diagnose latent tuberculous infection in childhood without the use of both the skin test and the x-ray. In our experience, the intradermal test is so much more satisfactory than the Von Pirquet that we have dropped the latter entirely. The value of the knowledge gained from this test may be illustrated by the following incident. Analysing the deaths in one hospital with which we had some connection about five years ago, we found that fifty per cent had occurred in children who had a tuberculous process and who then developed measles. The tuberculous process in itself would have been relatively harmless, as regards threat to life, without the superimposition of the measles, which is notorious for its ability to light up a quiescent process and to make possible a widespread dissemination. These children, from such things as tuberculous hips and glands, or hilus glands, following measles, show a generalized infection with a miliary process. There is a fairly wide use now of a convalescent serum to prevent measles, and, when it is known that the child has a positive tuberculin test, strenuous efforts can be made to obtain this, and thus to prevent measles from a known exposure. (# 359)

It does not fall within the scope of the present Manual to discuss medically or to pass final judgment on methods and techniques that should be left to the professional judgment of the medical staff of each institution. We may, however, urge that institutions keep in close touch with the developments in the field of tests and inoculations. Progress is being made very rapidly. The recommendations that follow are based on present knowledge and experience. Some of them will no doubt have to be altered, perhaps considerably, within the next five or ten years.

Recommendations. In view of the past experience of and present tendencies in our institutions, the following recommendations regarding the entrance physical examinations and laboratory tests and inoculations may be offered:

Routine for all:

Thorough stripped physical examination, on first day after admission, or, in case preadmission examination has not been made, on the day of admission. Record should be made of medical history of child and of family. Information on birth and infancy history and on health habits is very desirable.

Thorough dental examination.

Throat and nose cultures.

Wassermann test and smear.

Vaccination against smallpox.

Schick test and toxin-antitoxin or toxoid for children under about ten, toxin-antitoxin routine for all, with Schick test after six months and readministration of toxin-antitoxin to positive reactors; for children over ten, Schick test for all, with administration of toxin-antitoxin to positive reactors.

Urinalysis.

Tuberculin test, preferably the intradermal, with further examination of positive reactors.

Vision and audition tests.

Optional:

Other tests, counts, etc., as indicated by thorough physical examination.

Vaccination against whooping cough and typhoid, and Dick test and vaccine, if whooping cough, typhoid, or scarlet fever epidemic at the time.

D. RESIDENCE

I. FOLLOW-UP AND RE-EXAMINATIONS

The preadmission and entrance examinations have a double purpose: first, to safeguard the health of the resident population; secondly, to discover such defects and illnesses in the child as need correction and cure. *Systematic follow-up work in the way of correction and cure is a normal and, of course, highly essential phase of the institutional medical program.* It is extremely important in all institutions, even more particularly perhaps in those in which the turnover is rapid and in which consequently preventive, corrective and remedial treatment must be given intensively.

a. *Physical Re-examination.* Thorough stripped physical examinations of the resident children from time to time are part of the routine residence medical program of the institution.

A stripped physical examination is given to every child by the supervising physician once each month. All conditions calling for treatment are noted on the medical record, and these are closely followed up. All examinations given to the girls are under the supervision of the infirmary sister who is a trained nurse. (# 25)

Routine physical examinations are given to all the children in the institution every three months (# 11); every six months (# 67, # 54); yearly (# 6).

Every child in the institution is examined by the supervising physician at least once a year. He examines one group each month, until the entire population has been examined. Each child's record is carefully written up at the time of the examination and is kept on file. (# 14)

The pre-school children have a routine physical examination once a month. (# 79, # 81)

The practice and experience of our institutions incline decidedly in favor of a thorough physical re-examination, at least once a year, but *preferably, semi-annually*, for the general population. For chil-

dren of pre-school age, the routine monthly or quarterly examination is recommended. Thorough and systematic corrective and remedial follow-up treatment is called for, as indicated by the examinations. Detailed written record is made both of the recommendations and of the corrections.

b. *Dental Re-examinations.* As regards dental re-examinations, the tendency is towards having these made at least semi-annually.

Each child's teeth are examined upon entrance and every six months thereafter. (# 7 and # 67)

Routine dental re-examination is oftener than every six months. (# 79)

A routine dental examination is made every two or three months. (# 81)

Twelve dentists serve as the staff for the dental care of the children and give their services free, one of them coming to the institution every day. The children have their teeth examined at least once a month. (# 50)

A continuous dental examination is in progress, as the dentists take one child after the other regardless of how recently the dental work has been done for the child. (# 80)

It is generally agreed that our institutional children, in common with or even more so than the general school population of the country, are in need of a great deal of dental treatment in the way of fillings, extractions, and so forth. Those who do not need such treatment are a negligibly small percentage. Continuous follow-up and frequent re-examination are recognized on all sides as imperative. The experience of our institutions is in favor of having the dental work done within the institution itself. This involves ordinarily the provision of dental equipment within the institution and often of supplies as well.

Orthodonture. The following is an example of a particular type of dental work that has been very successful in at least one of our institutions.

A great deal of attention is paid to orthodontic work, such as straightening teeth. A specialist in this work gives his services and the material used gratis. He has done excellent work

in straightening the children's teeth at a great deal of expense to himself. Many times the children have lost one or two or three of the gold bands during this process. One little girl had every other tooth in her mouth set back. The specialist treated her for three years, and her teeth are now perfectly straight. Many of the children are at present wearing bands and having their teeth straightened. (# 27)

c. *Undernourished Children: Height and Weight Records.* In addition to the entrance height and weight records, such records are commonly made monthly for all the children, and more frequently for the undernourished.

Height and weight records are taken once a month (e. g., # 7, # 14, # 31, # 54, # 67, # 79, # 81), by the nurse, the classroom teacher, the group mother or the athletic director. Undernourished children are weighed weekly (e. g., # 27, # 54, # 79).

The following are the more common measures in use for the undernourished children:

Mid-morning and mid-afternoon (and evening) milk, eggnogs, lunches (e. g., # 7, # 25, # 27, # 54, # 67, # 75, # 81, # 107).

Special diet (e. g., # 7, # 27, # 29, # 54, # 75, # 79, # 107).

Daily cod-liver oil (# 27, # 88).

Ultra-violet ray treatment (# 88).

Afternoon naps other special rest periods (e. g., # 11, # 25, # 54, # 75, # 79, # 81).

Attention may be called to the advisability of ultra-violet ray treatment. It has been found of great value. It is and should be administered only by those who are experienced in its use, on the advice and under the direction of a physician. (Cf. Coulter, in *Hygeia*, Apr. 1928, vi, 203-4). Cod-liver oil, given two or three times a day, may also be cordially recommended for the undernourished.

For some years past, it has been customary to class as undernourished all children from about 7% to 15% "underweight" as judged by the Baldwin-Wood-Woodbury tables. It is becoming in-

creasingly clear, particularly in view of our most recent study (Franzen, *Physical Measures of Growth and Nutrition*, 1929), that the traditional 7-to-15 per cent underweight is a much less reliable criterion of undernourishment than it has been thought to be. Continuous height and weight records are important indices of *growth*. Trends of the records should be carefully watched, particularly for indications of loss of weight or of cessation of gain. But the 7-and-15 per cent "underweight" as compared with the average or "standard" Baldwin-Wood-Woodbury tables should not be relied upon as the sole criterion of undernourishment. Marked "underweight" as judged by these tables, and, still more, loss of weight or cessation of gain as shown in the individual child's record,—regardless of comparison with "standard" weights,—should be interpreted as suggesting the serious advisability of having the child more thoroughly studied by the physician to determine if real undernourishment exist or not.

Recommendations. In view of the experience of our institutions and of the newer concept of the criteria of undernourishment, the following recommendations may be made provisionally,—with the additional important recommendation that our institutions keep in close touch, through their medical staff, local health and medical groups, or the American Child Health Association, with the rapidly developing data and procedures in the field.

Diagnosis of undernourishment, not on the height-weight-age record alone, but on individual study by the medical staff. Loss of weight, or cessation of gain in weight, or marked "underweight" as compared with "standard" height-weight-age tables may be interpreted provisionally as an indication of the advisability of more thorough examination of the individual child by the physician to determine if the cause be undernourishment.

Routine weighing of all children monthly, with weekly weighing of the undernourished and pre-school children,—chiefly as an index of individual growth, and for indications of loss of weight or cessation of gain.

Continuous records of weight and height to be kept on the medical history record.

For the undernourished children: mid-morning and mid-afternoon milk, egg-nogs, lunches; special diet, under nurse's supervision, as advised by physician; cod-liver oil, twice or thrice daily; ultra-violet ray treatment, under skilled operation, as directed by physician; special rest periods.

d. *Posture Clinics.* Some of our institutions have found it practical and valuable to establish posture clinics. Furniture for classrooms and elsewhere should be chosen with a view to protecting the posture of the children.

When children are found, as a result of the physical examination, to have defective posture, a posture clinic is formed. This clinic is held once a week under the direction of the physical culture teacher. At the time of the study of the institution, it was very noticeable how straight and correctly most of the children stood. (# 27)

Systematic use is made of the posture chart issued by the United States Public Health Service. (# 76)

Doctor Nourse has described in detail the excellent plan followed in St. Joseph's Orphanage, Cleveland. "At the time of the periodic physical examination, a group of twenty-five girls ranging in age from five to fourteen years was selected because of their poor posture. The work was confined to this group and only girls in whom poor posture was due to poor body mechanics were included. A physio-therapist experienced in posture work was put in immediate charge. . . . The group was divided into five sub-groups of five each. . . . One-half hour instruction was given each sub-group three times weekly. Photographs showing both profile and posterior views were made of each child at the beginning of the period of instruction. One profile was given each child and from this the defects in body carriage were pointed out and the improvement expected, indicated. The child kept the photograph as a reminder of her previous poor posture and as a stimulus for improvement. The exercises were similar to those described by Thomas and Goldthwait in their book, 'Body Mechanics and Health' . . . Later in the period, the children were asked to assume the posture shown in their first photograph. Some of them were unable to do this easily. Then the instructor and members of the group assumed poor posture

and each girl went to the others present and pointed out the defects present and means of correction. At the end of the period photographs were again taken and in the majority of cases showed definite improvement. . . . The method of following up the work in the clinic is as follows. One girl from each group who showed the greatest interest and progress in the work was placed in charge of her group. Her duty is to instruct the group daily in a few of the exercises and to be sponsor for the conduct of the group in so far as it concerns "good posture" (*Cath. Char. Rev.*, Sept., 1928, 248-49).

e. *Endocrine Clinic.* One of the institutions studied inaugurated three years ago an endocrine clinic which has gotten very encouraging results. A short account of its work follows.

On admission to the institution, in addition to the usual physical examination, the following are routine under the endocrine clinic: basal metabolic estimate, hemoglobin estimate, leucocyte count, feces analysis, physical examination for evidences of endocrine imbalance, and mental age. All surgical and medical defects are corrected; teeth are put in good condition; diet is corrected, with administration of codliver oil and ultra-violet ray therapy. If, after all of the above procedure, the child does not show improvement, he is again sent to the endocrine clinic. Many cases which do not respond to ordinary surgical and medical procedures clear up when placed upon endocrine treatment. It has been found that where the customary procedures do not lead to the correction of defects, there is usually some endocrine dysfunction. The endocrine treatment has been of value in many respects, especially in case of malnutrition, enuresis, and abnormal mentality. Improvement in and general increase of bony growth has followed the administering of thyroid, parathyroid and calcium. The treatment is easily administered by tablets containing the three ingredients, as condition indicates. Since the endocrine treatment has been started a number of other improvements have been noted. For instance, at present there are no children with discharging ears and no cases of eczema. The general health and well-being of children under treatment have noticeably improved. A number of other factors have, of course, entered into this improvement, but the endocrine treatment given has been an important factor. Incidentally, through the tests given

by the clinic and through the personality analyses by clinic and group mothers, much light has been shed upon causes and treatment of many of the scholarship and conduct problems of the children. (# 88)

f. *Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat, and Orthopedic Re-examinations.* Routine eye, ear, nose and throat examinations as well as orthopedic examinations are needed ordinarily at least once yearly for all the children in the institution.

Attention may be called in passing to the value of the phonograph audiometer for testing the hearing of the children. Its use is spreading very rapidly, with highly significant and valuable results. One at least of our institutions (# 81) is using the audiometer test with excellent results. The audiometer recommended for group testing is the 4-A audiometer, that has been produced by the Bell Telephone Laboratories. Through its use, about forty children can be tested at the same time, that is, from seventy-five to a hundred and fifty children an hour. The apparatus consists of a spring-driven turntable, like that of an ordinary phonograph, an electromagnetic reproducer, and a group of telephone receivers. Younger children, in the first and second grades, must be tested individually. For the individual testing of the very young children, and re-testing of children found defective by the 4-A, the 3-A audiometer is commonly used. For special cases, a third or 2-A audiometer is in use. In a recent test made with the 4-A audiometer on 16,895 white children in the Fort Worth, Texas, public schools, 3,575 or 21.16% were found to have a hearing loss of 9% or over in one or both ears, 179 or 1.05% of the total examined having a loss of 30% or more.

Our available data seem to show that about 4% to 7% of the children of the United States are so subnormal in hearing as to be seriously handicapped for life. "Most cases of deafness may be traced to the after-effects of such diseases of childhood as scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, mumps, or even frequent colds. . . . Social workers for the deafened are convinced that fully three-fourths of all cases of deafness might be checked or entirely cured if taken in time." (What is Your Community Doing for its Hard of Hearing? Amer. Fed. of Organ. for Hard of Hearing). Subnormal hearing has well-known far-reaching effects on the school training and general welfare of the child. In view of these facts,

and of the ease with which the audiometer tests may be made, its routine use may be strongly recommended,—on admission, yearly, and during and after attacks of childhood diseases like the ones mentioned above. Some caution needs to be taken in interpreting the results of group tests with the audiometer. These give indications of trouble, but should not be entirely relied upon. Children registering subnormal should be given individual re-examination. Improvements may also be expected in the audiometer itself.

2. DISPENSARY AND AMBULATORY CASES

In addition to giving the routine follow-up treatment indicated by the entrance examinations and by the periodic re-examinations, every institution needs to make provisions for its quota of illnesses and accidents of major or minor moment that call for dispensary or infirmary treatment. Many institutions find it convenient to have the dispensary and infirmary immediately adjoining each other, in the same part of one of the buildings or in a separate building. In other institutions, as a result of local preferences and necessities, the dispensary and infirmary are located some distance apart.

a. *Dispensary.* In any case, the dispensary or treatment room should be so located that it is easily accessible to the children. The dispensary should consist of at least one separate room. Many institutions have a separate treatment room, adjoining the dispensary, for minor surgical cases such as playground accidents, injuries and so forth, as well as a dental room. In other institutions dental and minor surgical treatment is given in the single room set aside as the dispensary. The person in charge of the dispensary should be a trained nurse.

b. *Equipment.* The equipment of the dispensary, treatment room, and dental room will depend largely upon the financial resources of the institution and upon the size of the population. The following excerpts from reports are given by way of illustration and suggestion.

The dispensary, treatment room, and dental room are on the first floor of the infirmary, in a separate building. In the treatment room, which is attractively furnished with enamel children's chairs and with tables with dainty coverlets, are an instrument case, a medicine closet, a dressing and supply cabinet,

and a cupboard set aside for the gowns of the physician, dentist, and nurse. In this room, there are also the filing cabinets for admission cards, dental cards, and dispensary cards. In the dental room, there are two sterilizers, a modern dental chair, a dental engine, a table bracket, a modern cabinet or instrument case, a surgical sink with automatic faucet, and a glass top table. The dispensary is open at all times. Children come freely to it, either of their own volition or by direction, for minor treatments, such as for splinters, blisters, cuts, warts, colds, and so forth. All such minor treatments are recorded on the dispensary card, and, when completed, a note thereof is made on the child's admission card. (# 11)

There is a large dental room, which is also used for an operating room for minor operations. This room is equipped with an operating table and sterilizer. The sterilizer has been found very useful for the dental and surgical work. The dental clinic contains a dental chair and all modern electric equipment. (# 50)

There is a separate dental room, fully equipped. In the dispensary is also full equipment for the oculist who comes weekly. (# 67)

The operating room is fully equipped for minor operations. It consists of a large alcove with two large windows. Immediately opposite the operating room is a recovery room for minor surgical cases. (# 19)

All medicines are kept in the pharmacy. This room is painted with an all-white laboratory enamel so that the walls cannot be affected by acids, fumes, chemicals, and so forth. The room is also equipped as a miniature laboratory. Ordinary urinalysis is made here. Here also is a Zoalite for infra-red therapy and a Baumanometer to register blood pressure. The dental clinic contains a dental chair and an electric dental engine. The dental clinic has a complete supply of instruments, sterilizers, alloys, medicines, and so forth, used in dental treatment. All materials and equipment therefor are purchased by the institution, dental services being paid for by the hour. (# 72)

A weighing scale has recently been added to the equipment of the treatment room. (# 76)

c. *Hours.* The general tendency as regards administration of the dispensary is to open it to the children at regular periods, one to three or four periods daily, or to keep it open all the time. Many institutions encourage the children to come to the dispensary voluntarily, without waiting to be sent, whenever they need treatment for cuts, scratches, minor ailments, and so forth.

The sister in charge of the dispensary is a trained nurse. It is open three times a day, after each meal. The children are free to go to the dispensary at any of these times and are taught to go there if not feeling well. The sister is also always accessible for any emergency. (# 27)

The dispensary is completely outfitted and is equipped to take care of minor surgery. It is in charge of a registered nurse. It is an understood rule that any boy with an eruption or the smallest scratch must report to the dispensary. This rule has been the means of avoiding many serious complications. (# 36)

3. INFIRMARY AND BED-PATIENTS

Children requiring infirmary or hospital treatment may have either non-contagious or contagious diseases. Equipment and administration differ accordingly. The provision for bed-patients that is needed in the institution depends very largely upon the outside hospital resources available for non-contagious and contagious cases.

a. *Non-contagious Ward.* There are a good many advantages in having the hospital infirmary in a separate building, but this is not always possible. A location that insures quiet for the patients is important. The capacity of the infirmary will depend upon the population of the institution and upon outside hospital accommodations. No ironclad rule can be laid down, but the proportion of one infirmary bed to every twenty-five children in the institution is a common and reasonable one; one to twelve or fifteen would be better. The provision of some single rooms or small two-bed or three-bed wards in the infirmary has been found very valuable in those institutions that have been able so to arrange the infirmary. If the different rooms and wards have walls, curtains, beds, chairs, etc., of different colors, there is less of the hospital atmosphere and less monotony. A balcony or sun parlor connected with the infirmary, and a room for convalescents, are desirable. In some institutions, a sleeping porch connected with the infirmary has done good service.

Provision needs, of course, to be made in the infirmary for lavatory, bath, and toilet facilities, as well as for the preparation or at least for the serving of food. Where the food for the infirmary patients is prepared in the main kitchen, it is nevertheless of value to have a small diet kitchen for special foods and for emergencies. In some infirmaries, there is need of sleeping quarters for the nurse or others on the infirmary staff. A recreation room for the children is also of very distinct value, and, where possible, outside play facilities should be provided for convalescents. A radio or victrola and a supply of children's books, toys, dolls, and so forth, go far to while away the weary hours of illness and convalescence and to bring contentment to the hearts of the children confined in the infirmary.

The medicine closet should always be kept locked, with the key in the possession of the nurse in charge of the infirmary. The foregoing outline of infirmary and of equipment represents a composite picture drawn from the reports made during the Study. The following detailed excerpts are added by way of explanation, illustration, and suggestion.

The infirmary occupies a separate building three stories high. During quarantine, food is prepared in the infirmary kitchen. At other times, it is brought over from the main kitchen. Adjoining the infirmary dining room is a small room used as a dining room by the resident nurse and the matron in charge of the children. On the first floor of the infirmary is the dispensary and dental room. There are three infirmary rooms, one on the first floor containing twelve beds, and two on the second floor containing ten and eighteen respectively. These rooms are sunny and airy, with four to six feet between beds. In all three infirmary rooms, there are outlets for electric attachments along the baseboard at regular intervals. Thus it is possible to have extension lights beside each bed. There are also combination day-and-night lights in the ceiling. Running the width of the whole infirmary building on each floor is a porch which gets the afternoon sun and also serves as a fire escape. The third floor of the infirmary building is set aside as a receiving department. Respiratory diseases, and certain contagious diseases, such as chickenpox, measles, etc., are cared for, under isolation, in the infirmary building. But cases of scarlet fever, diphtheria, infantile paralysis, etc., are sent to an

outside hospital, unless there is an epidemic of any one of these diseases and the cases outnumber the quota of beds allowed at the hospital to the institution. (# 11)

The infirmary is fully equipped, and nothing has been left undone to make it, in all its departments, both efficient and attractive. In addition to the dental room, it contains an operating room, with completely modern hospital equipment, sterilizer for water, and autoclave for surgical dressings. In the infirmary department, there are eight single rooms. There are three rooms with private baths, two rooms with two beds each, and one general ward with five beds. Aside from private baths and toilets, there is a general room in the infirmary equipped with toilets, basins, and so forth. (# 25)

The infirmary is so arranged that it can easily be used for contagious cases when necessary. It includes a beautiful diet kitchen, with all equipment,—tables, cooking utensils, electric ice box, electric stove, etc. Each ward has its own bath so constructed that it can be entirely private. The tubs are built-in ones. There is also a room entirely constructed of terrazzo, containing one large porcelain built-in bath tub. This tub, extra long, and not too low for an attendant stooping over it when bathing patients, is sufficiently large to be used for any kind of therapeutic treatment. The tub is built in the middle of the room so it can be reached from the entire circumference. (# 35)

The infirmary is a separate building easy of access to the other buildings. It has one department for boys and one for girls. It has a well-equipped operating room and most of the operations are performed at the institution. There is a diet kitchen on each of the three floors. On the first floor is an isolation room, with fifteen beds, that is used for minor isolations such as measles. There are balconies off each of the dormitories on the first, second and third floors; thus convalescing children can be outdoors. There are a couple of private rooms on each floor, and there are two dormitories for the girls and for the boys. The fourth floor is devoted to small isolation rooms. Breakfast and supper are prepared in the diet kitchens of the infirmary; dinner is brought from the main kitchen. The medicine closet is in a separate room, and the sister in charge of the infirmary keeps the key. A compartment in the closet

which contains poison has double doors. The dispensary or clinic is on the first floor, and is open before and after school. (# 67)

There is a separate hospital building in which all of the institution's ordinary medical and minor surgical work is done. Cases of acute illness and of major surgery work are taken care of by a local hospital. The institution infirmary or hospital has been so constructed as to provide for as many as six different groups of children, each group isolated from the other. There are three floors to the building. On the first floor is a doctor's waiting room, a room for the dentist with complete dental equipment, a room for children waiting to see the dentist, an operating room, two wards, a sleeping porch, two bath rooms for the children, a dining room, and a kitchen. On the second floor are three wards, two bathrooms, recreation room, two rooms for nurses, a room for the sister in charge, and a sleeping porch. On the third floor are five wards, two bathrooms, a store room, a room for a sister, and a nurses' room. The infirmary is also used as a receiving department for new children. They have no contact with the other children in the hospital, and any of the children admitted who show signs of infection are isolated in a separate ward. There is also a special ward for the isolation of children already in the institution who show any symptoms of infection. There is a separate playground outside the infirmary. (# 68)

The dispensary and infirmary are in a separate building known as the hospital building, about fifty feet south of the main group and connected therewith by telephone and fire-alarm. The building is thoroughly equipped with ample provision for isolation on both floors. On the second floor there are two sun parlors and a porch. One of the wards has four beds, five windows, toilet, and basin; the other ward has two beds. The wards have a system of electric signals for bed patients, who may ring a buzzer and throw on a light over the door of the ward and in the attendant's room at head of bed. (# 71)

In the infirmary there is an attractive sun room facing east, and here the children during the period of convalescence have radio, toys, books, games and other amusements. (# 79)

The infirmary is on the second floor in the right wing of the building. At present, one large room, with ten white iron beds

and chairs to match, is used as an infirmary for the older children. The other infirmary room, for smaller children, is equipped with six beds, the color scheme throughout being pink and white. The floor is hard wood and waxed, the curtains are white, and altogether the room is most restful in appearance. The sister keeps on hand a supply of toys, dolls, dogs, ducks, rabbits, and so forth, and finds that these are very helpful in entertaining the little patients. (# 81)

One of the infirmary rooms used for the very small children is very daintily decorated, and has detachable Mother Goose and kindergarten borders around the walls. These borders can be changed quite easily. (# 91)

The non-contagious ward has its own toilet and bath, and a small overhanging sun-porch for convalescent patients. There is also a room for the sister infirmarian. There is one bed to twenty-five children of general population. *Ample cupboard space* is provided to care for all necessary bedding, night clothes, linens, etc. Another cupboard serves as a china closet. All linens, bedding, dishes, etc., in this department belong exclusively to it and are not used in other parts of the institution. A one-unit electric hot plate is used to warm up food, drinks, water, and so forth, used in care of the sick. The sick room is tiffanied in light grey with white enamel trim. A series of pictures and twelve nursery rhymes in color form a pleasing frieze. Harmony, warmth, brightness and cheerfulness are the dominant tone of the room. (# 72)

b. *Contagious Ward.* There is no system, practicable for the institution, that infallibly safeguards the children against the hazard of contagion. Entrance and later inoculations, and high standards of preventive and remedial follow-up work and of physical care, go far to check the beginnings and spread of contagion, as does also the admission quarantine period. But none of these measures is infallible, even where the resident children have a minimum of outside contact. In any, even the very best, institution, contagious diseases and epidemics are bound to appear from time to time.

Practically all of our institutions have consequently found it imperative to provide isolation facilities for at least minor contagious cases, and some arrange to care even for major contagious cases.

Where adequate outside hospital accommodations are available, the institution, it is widely felt, should make use of these facilities for major contagious or non-contagious cases. But it is the general experience that there should be accommodations within the institution for the care of respiratory and minor contagious diseases.

The contagious ward is preferably located in a separate building of its own. Many of our institutions, however, are able to provide adequate isolation in a ward of the general infirmary or in some other unit of the institution. It needs hardly be added that, in addition to physical isolation of the contagious ward itself, strict enforcement of quarantine through administrative measures is absolutely necessary.

The contagious ward, as distinct from the ordinary or non-contagious ward, is completely isolated from the institution proper. It is located on the second floor of the laundry building. A separate exit, leading directly into the open, can be used, if necessary. It is divided into two sections, each section containing a series of single rooms for individual cases. The toilet room has two divisions, each with toilet and bath, in case boys with different cases of contagion are quarantined. The ward kitchen is large enough to care for a number of boys, and has its own complete equipment,—dishes, cooking utensils, gas stove, icebox, etc.,—so that, if need be, no contact whatever may ensue with the general kitchen, whence food is ordinarily sent to the contagious department. Opposite the kitchen is a stock room, where bedding, blankets, linens, toys, etc., are kept. The whole department is a complete independent unit, and none of its equipment may be sent to or used by the main institution. All children, on leaving the contagious department after infection, are first thoroughly disinfected and then kept in the non-contagious ward for a few days, before mingling with the well children. Rooms are fumigated and cleansed after each case. The director writes as follows regarding the contagious department: "Our present isolation ward, capable of accommodating 20 patients in ordinary times and almost 40 cases in extreme emergency, was developed about fifteen years ago by the former superintendent, out of a long, large room occupying the second story of our laundry building and power house. It cost about \$8,000 to recondition the same. To this the expense of equipment must be added. Experience has ade-

quately taught that this was a wise investment. Formerly recurring epidemics of measles, chicken-pox, ring-worm, mumps, coughs, colds, grippe, etc., even scarlet fever, smallpox and diphtheria, were the annual pastime for winter and spring months. The old social order was changed almost instantly with proper use of the isolation ward and a very stringent policy of isolating any and every case of suspected contagion. The suspected case must prove himself 'Not Guilty' before he is allowed to come in contact with the other boys. A very adequate, upbuilding and immunizing diet of unvitiated food and an eternal vigilance on the part of the school sisters and especially the Sister Infirmarian, make the occupancy of the isolation hospital even by individual cases a rare occurrence." (# 72)

In case of contagion, one of the two departments of the infirmary can be completely shut off from the other. This department contains four rooms with two beds each, two toilets, and a separate stairway leading direct to the ground and so to the open. (# 31)

The details of a very successful technique for isolation of contagious cases are given on pp. 221-22 of present chapter. (# 66)

Children already in the institution, who come down with a contagious disease, should not be sent to the receiving department under conditions that would tie up admissions. Either they should be sent out to a contagious hospital, or else there should be a separate contagious unit in the institution. (# 331)

E. RECORDS

1. *Need.* Medical records have a double purpose. First, they are of value for the individual child. Systematic and thorough remedial, preventive, and constructive medical and physical care of the child is not apt to be given, unless a systematic and thorough record is kept of his needs and condition. Such a record enables us to plan intelligently for the child in the light of all the facts. It, moreover, safeguards us against our all-too-human forgetfulness and oversight. Secondly, systematic and thorough records, as they accumulate and are submitted to study and analysis, give us much light and guidance upon problems and policies affecting the larger groups either within the institution or outside thereof. An illustra-

tion of one of the many values of exact records has been given on page 218 of the present chapter.

2. *Records.* The medical records, in accordance with best current usage in our institutions, include full written data under the following headings: initial physical examination; medical history of the child and of his family; birth and infancy history of the child; present health habits; examinations, by eye, ear, nose and throat, and orthopedic specialists; tests and inoculations, routine and optional; dental examination; psychological and psychiatric examinations; continuous health and weight record; re-examinations, general and special; physicians' recommendations; corrections, operations, and treatments, minor and major.

The system under which each child has his own folder for all medical records appears to be the most convenient, to judge from the experience of our institutions. The folder system is more convenient than the envelope system. The file in which these folders are kept is under lock and key. The file is ordinarily in the dispensary or hospital. While a child is a bed-patient in the infirmary, a temperature chart and a special infirmary record or bedside chart are called for. On discharge from the infirmary, the infirmary record is transferred to the child's medical folder. On the child's discharge from the institution his medical record is transferred to his social-history folder in the main office.

If such corrections and treatments as are indicated by the initial examinations and re-examinations are to be realized, thorough and systematic checking-up on the medical records is imperative. On the general principle that what is everyone's responsibility is no one's, it appears imperative that the responsibility for systematic check-up on records and for follow-up work should be centered in some one person. All things considered, probably the best person in most institutions in whom to center this responsibility is the head of the health department, dispensary, or hospital of the institution. This one person should make it his or her duty to keep consistently abreast of physicians' recommendations, and of medical conditions, defects and corrections, for each and every child in the institution. Two simple but very effective devices that may make easier this task of systematic study and check-up are the Kardex System and the special loose-leaf notebook plan described on pages 224 and 216 of the

present chapter. The first of these two devices has the advantage of enabling one to see at a glance the health conditions of the institution.

In addition to the records of the individual children, there should also be general reports of the examinations, tests, inoculations, operations, dispensary and infirmary treatments, and so forth, for the whole institution. These reports may be made weekly or monthly, and should be compiled into an annual report.

3. *Record Blanks.* No uniform system of medical blanks is in use among our Catholic institutions. Some of our institutions use the cards or sheets issued by the National Conference of Catholic Charities, by the Child Welfare League of America, by State Departments of Public Health and Welfare, or by local health organizations. Other institutions (e.g., # 39, # 72) have preferred to make up their own blanks.

There would be certain obvious advantages, if a standard set of blanks, based on the pooled experience of our institutions and their medical staffs, were available, and if this set were in universal use. There would, however, be certain equally obvious drawbacks. Health conditions, needs, and regulations differ appreciably from locality to locality, and from institution to institution. Moreover, medical science itself shifts its emphases rapidly. The recent shift as regards the significance of height-and-weight records is just one example. A "standardized" blank might easily become as much a brake upon progress as a stimulus to progress.

In view of the whole situation, the Conference, guided largely by comments upon the provisional draft of the present Manual, feels that it should not undertake to formulate and issue a new set of medical blanks and to recommend their use by all our institutions throughout the country.

We should instead suggest that, for the time being at least, our institutions make use of one or other of the several excellent blanks already available, and referred to above and in the bibliography appended to the present chapter. Such modifications as are called for by local conditions, needs, and regulations can readily be made. Or else, using the existing blanks as a basis of discussion, the institution may work out its own set. It would seem advisable, in view of the swift changes and developments in medical science, that ample space be left on the blanks for insertion of new items to be added.

We may further make the tentative suggestion that the institutions in each state or region come together and work out a uniform blank for their own state or regional group. This plan has several advantages. It leads to an exchange of experience between the institutions concerned. It secures the advantages of uniformity and of regard for local conditions, while at the same time obviating the drawbacks of too rigid "standardization". It may lead, in the long run, to the formulation of a set of blanks, that would secure the same advantages and obviate the same drawbacks for the country at large.

Given the financial limitations and the shortage in clerical help that prevail in nearly all our institutions, it is obviously important that the record blanks used should be as simple as is consistent with reasonable thoroughness and efficiency. "It is possible," as one superior writes (# 55) "to have such complicated records that more attention is paid to the records than to the child". This danger, while real, does not appear at present to be imminent on a large scale. It is, however, one that will have to be guarded against in the not distant future. For the present, our emphasis for the country at large will have to be upon more complete records. Over-simplification, carried out from considerations of economy, is an expensive, not to say extravagant, procedure.

There appears to be a preference among our institutions for the single sheet or folded sheet, on which all the child's medical record, except the dental, mental and infirmary records, can be entered. An occasional institution enters even the dental and mental records on the same sheet. The bedside chart must of necessity be on a separate blank. Some institutions prefer, however, the use of separate sheets for the main divisions of the medical record.

The advantages of having as much as possible of the medical record on a single blank are the following: clerical work is minimized; filing is simplified; reference to the record is facilitated; a complete medical picture of the child can be seen at a glance. The advantages of the separate sheets are: some institutions consider them easier to handle; specialists often prefer them; more space can be allowed for annotations. This last point may deserve some emphasis. The record blank should be compact, but not crowded. If it is too crowded, there is insufficient space for the more extensive

annotations that are often needed. This in turn may lead to varying degrees of illegibility,—a disturbing phenomenon not always confined, however, to crowded blanks!

Most of our institutions include on the main medical blank the following: physical examination; tests and inoculations; continuous height-and-weight record; re-examinations; recommendations, corrections, and treatments.

Records, of course, are primarily for practical use and guidance. They should, therefore, be conveniently accessible to the supervising physician, the dentist, the specialists, the nurse, the infirmarian and others on whom falls the responsibility for medical care of the child.

REFERENCES

On the place of physical health in the welfare of the child, see references cited in first pages of text of chapter. Father Lockington's delightfully written little work, *Bodily health and spiritual vigour*, on the spiritual implications of bodily health and on the attitude of Catholic spiritual writers thereto will amply repay reading. A good critical review of our present knowledge of the prevalence of defects and diseases among American children, with annotated bibliography, may be found in Furfey, *Social problems of childhood*, ch. iii; see also, Mangold, *Problems of child welfare*, rev. ed., chs. iv, vii-ix, or Baker, *Child hygiene*, ch. xiii.

For excellent short outlines of the medical program for child-caring homes, see: "Manual of health supervision in child caring homes," Cath. char. of N. Y., 1930; *Program for Catholic childcaring homes*, 1923, 8-9, 19-20; *Handbook for institutions*, publ. no. 170, U. S. Children's bureau, ch. vi; Sr. Mary Eileen, "Health program for childcaring institutions," in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 426-28; Wahl, "Medical care of institutional children," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Dec., 1924, viii, 364-67. The problem of admission quarantine is well summarized in Toomey, "Institutional isolation," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Sept. 1928, xii, 246-48.

Typical lists of items to consider in the initial physical examination may be found in the easily procurable blanks issued by: National conference of Catholic charities, 1103 Vermont ave., Washington, D. C.; Child welfare league of America, 130 E. 22nd st., New York City; U. S. Children's bureau, in *Standards for physicians conducting conferences in child-health centers*, publ. no. 154, Washington, 1926; many State departments of health or welfare; cf. *Manual of health supervision in child caring homes*, 15-17.

For authoritative information on venereal diseases, smears and Wassermann tests, write to American social hygiene association, 370 Seventh ave., N. Y. City; on tuberculosis and tuberculin tests, to National tuberculosis association, same address; on hearing and on hearing tests, to American federation of organizations for the hard of hearing, 1537 35th st., N. W., Washington, D. C. On venereal disease tests, see also articles by Smith and Coleman, in *Proc. 26th Nat. conf. social work*, 1928, 432-46. On tuberculin testing of children, see the recently published manual on this subject published by the Nat. tuberculosis assoc.: Chadwick and McPhedran, *Childhood type of tuberculosis, diagnostic aids*, 1930, pp. 29.

On hard of hearing, see: *The hard-of-hearing child*, U. S. Bureau of education, 1927; Norris, "Report of Chairman of the Committee on hard of hearing children," and Warwick, "Hearing tests in public schools of Fort Worth," in *Volta review*, Nov., 1928, xxx.

A very good summary of the problem of malnutrition,—diagnosis, prevalence, causes, effects, treatment, bibliography,—may be found in the 19-page pamphlet by Roberts, *What is malnutrition?*, U. S. Children's bureau, rev. ed., 1927. The earlier literature and views on the relation between nutrition and weight-height-age should be viewed in the light of the important recent study by Franzen, *Physical measures of growth and nutrition*, and with consideration of the radical changes in procedure suggested by Whitney, *Weighing school children*.

On posture clinics and exercises, see: Nourse, in *Cath. char. rev.*, Sept. 1928, xii, 248-49; Klein, *Posture clinics*, publ. no. 164, U. S. Children's bureau, 1926, and Klein and Thomas, *Posture exercises*, *ibid.*, publ. no. 165.

Many excellent suggestions on medical and physical care of children in institutions are contained in the *Health education self-appraisal form for institutions for dependent children* (write for copy to: Health education committee, Section for dependent children, Welfare council of New York City).

A great many very good practical hints on the equipment of the institutional infirmary may be found in: Southard, *Institutional household administration*, ch. xiv, 172-79. See also on infirmary and dispensary care: *Manual of health supervision in child caring homes*, *Cath. char. of N. Y.*, 10-11.

Among medical and health periodicals, may be recommended as best suited for general reading and reference by childcaring institution staffs: *Hygeia*, publ. monthly by American medical assoc., 535 North Dearborn st., Chicago, \$3.00 a year; semi-popular, attractively written and illustrated. A next choice would be: *American journal of public health and Nation's health* (combined), publ. mthly by American public health assoc., 370 Seventh ave., N. Y. C., \$5.00 a year. The Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y. C., issues mthly exc. July-Sept., gratis on request, an excellent authoritative popular 4-page publication, *Health bulletin for teachers*,—each number giving a summary of our present knowledge of a key subject relating to health and hygiene, and suggesting splendid projects and methods for classroom teaching.

CHAPTER VI

PHYSICAL CARE AND HEALTH TRAINING

The institution looks after the bodily health of the children not only through its program of medical care but also through its program of physical care and health education. We are here using the term 'physical care' in a somewhat arbitrary sense to include the subjects of food, clothing, sleep, elimination, washing and bathing, exercise, fresh air and sunlight.

A. PHYSICAL CARE

The Problem. A great many of our institutions incline toward the view that physical care of the child is even more important than medical care, although, of course, the basic importance of the latter is thoroughly recognized.

It is not easy to determine the exact percentage of influence that medical and physical care respectively have upon the general health of the children in any given institution. There appears to be general agreement that proper provision as regards food, clothing, exercise, and so forth, is at least fifty per cent of the problem. And, in fact, if we may judge from the excellent health conditions prevailing in a number of the institutions where facilities for physical care outstrip facilities for medical care, one is strongly inclined to draw the conclusion that normal physical care contributes considerably more than fifty per cent towards the general bodily health of the children.

Adequate physical care not only builds up physical health constructively, but also performs a far-reaching preventive service. Such provision, moreover, of adequate physical care is an integral factor in nearly all remedial medical work. Thus, along all three lines,—remedial, preventive and constructive,—physical care is a great, and probably the greatest, contributor to bodily health. Moreover, by so contributing directly to physical health, it contributes indirectly to mental health, to intellectual progress, to main-

tenance of discipline, to development of character, to the contentment and happiness of the children, and to the general well-being of the institution.

Case Illustration

At the beginning of the preceding chapter, we cited at some length the medical program of one of our institutions (# 88) for which a pretty accurate check-up of results was available. That these results have been largely due to the medical program can hardly be questioned. That, however, the program of physical care that prevails in the same institution has had a great deal to do with the general betterment in health is quite clear from the facts revealed during the present study and this view is shared by the authorities of the institution. The following outline of the institution's program of physical care is given here in some detail by way of concrete illustration.

Food. Forty to forty-five gallons of milk are purchased daily. The population of the institution averaged 181 for 1928. Food is carefully planned and carefully distributed, adequate measures being taken to keep it hot between the kitchen and the dining rooms and to have it properly served to the tables from the serving room adjoining each dining room. Meals are regularly and well served. Children's meal hours are always supervised, although not conspicuously. Cheerful talk is permitted at all meals and laughter is encouraged. Menus are made out weekly: one for the junior (boys, 7-10 years; girls, 7-11 years) and senior (boys, 11-12 years; girls, 12-18 years) children, and another for the pre-school (3-6 years) children. Before the menus are carried out, they are approved by the Health Department of the institution. The sister in charge, well versed in dietetics, estimates the calories and makes sure that the meals are properly balanced. The menus ordinarily include almost every variety of food suitable for children. A monthly check-up of the food supply is made. This tabulation shows the number of times each kind of food or dish was served during the month. It is a simple and quick means of evaluating the content of the food supply at any given time.

Positive food dislikes are respected if the children as a group demonstrate repeatedly and consistently that they do not like

a certain food. In such rare cases an effort is made to substitute a food which is better liked and which supplies the same nutritive elements. Ordinarily there is little difficulty in getting the children to eat healthful foods. This is due perhaps to the "good behavior tradition" which prevails in the dining rooms.

Clothing. Nearly all the clothing is bought ready-made, although some of the boys' waists and other clothing are made in the sewing room. Each child, upon admission to the institution, receives a full set of four changes of clothing, and the pre-school children get six sets. Each child has Sunday clothes, school clothes, and play clothes, all for his sole individual use. When a garment is worn out, the group mother replaces it. When it is outgrown, the child's mark is removed, and the garment is placed in a cupboard as a garment to be used at the discretion of the group mother. When a child leaves the institution, he takes with him all of his clothing. Each new child gets full sets of new clothing.

Underwear is changed weekly or oftener in the case of the older children, and two times a week or oftener for the pre-school children. Each boy has four or five waists a week, and each girl has as many dresses as she needs to be clean and presentable. Shoes are bought individually for the children, and are fitted at the store before purchase. Occasionally, instead of sending all the children down town to be fitted, an experienced fitter from the wholesale house comes out to the orphanage with a large supply of shoes and fits each child. Each child has shoes for everyday wear and shoes for Sunday. Every child has bedroom slippers and all the girls have dressing gowns. There is ample individual locker space for clothing as well as for individual possessions.

The group mother is responsible for supervising the repair of clothing. After each laundry day, when the clothing of each group is being sorted, garments in need of repair are sent to the sewing room. Buttons and minor repairs are cared for in the mending room of each group unit.

Sleep. Children have fixed hours for retiring and rising. When something special, however, is going on, these hours may be varied occasionally for the older children. The pre-school children go to bed at 7:00 in the winter and 8:00 in the

summer, and arise at 6:45. Junior boys and girls retire at 9:00 and rise at 6:45, except on Wednesdays and Fridays when they get up at 5:50 to attend Mass and on Sundays when they get up at 6:30 for 7:00 Mass. Senior boys and girls go to bed about 9:00 or 9:30 and get up at 5:50 on week days and at 6:30 on Saturdays and Sundays. Children under six who do not attend kindergarten have a daily nap from 1:00 to 2:00 p. m. Sheets and pillow-cases are changed weekly, and oftener if unduly soiled.

Elimination. Group mothers are responsible for supervising the toilet habits of all children. When deviation from the normal occurs, this is reported to the sister R. N. in charge of the Health Department, and the children are sent to the dispensary. In the pre-school department the children are regularly taken to the toilet every morning and after each meal. They are watched during the morning and afternoon, and if they do not ask to go to the toilet they are sent.

At the time of the study there were only four enuresis cases in the institution. Close attention is paid to this habit and constant watching is employed in the pre-school department where most of the difficulty is apt to be. Effort is made to establish regular toilet habits and to have children go to the toilet at regular hours during the day and before they go to bed. When the group mother retires at 9:30, she gets the enuretic children up for the toilet, and again at 5:00 in the morning when she arises. When these measures do not check enuresis, the child is referred to the physician. Endocrine treatment has proven very helpful in a number of cases of long standing. Physical examination to check and build general health has helped in some cases, as have also circumcision and Alpine Lamp treatment.

Washing and Bathing. Children bathe twice a week in winter and every day in summer. Children who need more frequent baths during the winter have as many as are necessary. Warm water is usually used in bathing, although on hot summer days cold water may be used.

The shower room has 44 showers in 11 rows of 4 each, and 48 curtained dressing compartments. Each group has an assigned bath time, and twenty to forty children bathe at one time. The shower room has a drain at one end which can be stopped

to make a wading pool for the younger children in hot weather. Tubs are not much in use. There are, however, two tubs for junior boys, and one for junior girls, one for senior boys, two for senior girls, two for pre-school boys and one for pre-school girls. Each of the pre-school groups' wash rooms has one tub which is raised for the convenience of caretakers.

Except for the high school girls, who bathe in the senior girls' lavatory, all children ordinarily bathe in the general shower room, one group at a time. They undress in individual curtained dressing cabinets. The showers themselves are not separately curtained. In the showers, boys wear loose outing flannel trunks and girls loose robes of Turkish toweling. When a group of boys or of girls complete their baths, they put on clean Turkish toweling robes, drop the wet trunks or robes on the floor of the shower room, and then go to their dressing rooms to dress. The six-year-old children bathe themselves. The five-year-olds are assisted to bathe themselves. Ordinarily with each pre-school group that goes to the shower room there are four supervisors to help the children and to see that they wash themselves thoroughly. Each child carries his wash cloth and bath towel to the shower room with him.

The change from the old tub system to the present shower system has greatly saved work and drudgery. Before the establishment of the shower room, each group mother was responsible for the children of her group, who bathed in tubs. A great amount of time was required to let the water in and out of the tubs and to clean the tubs between baths. Under the old method, bath day was real drudgery, and everyone was worn out by the time the children in each group had completed their baths. Now bath day is so enjoyable for the children and so much easier for their caretakers that frequent bathing is a regular practice, and one which adds to the general cleanliness and happiness without entailing physical weariness or temper strain on the part of anybody.

In the lavatories liquid soap is used with a tap over each wash bowl. Individual projection bars for towel and wash cloth extend over the wash bowls. Each child has also a separate compartment for towel, tooth brush, and tooth paste. Junior girls have a glass shelf on which each girl places her tumbler upside down. Other departments place their tumblers on top of their compartments or inside thereof, with their combs and

brushes. Pre-school children's wash rooms are similarly equipped, but have low wash bowls and low benches at the sides.

Older children, from six up, wash themselves. The children wash their hands and faces before retiring at night and on arising in the morning. They are also taught to wash their hands before each meal and after going to the toilet. Hair is usually washed and shampooed when showers are taken. The children brush their teeth thoroughly twice daily, upon arising and before retiring. Finger nails are under the supervision of the group mother, who cuts those of smaller children, while older children manicure their own nails.

Exercise, Fresh Air, and Sunlight. Ample time and facilities for outdoor play provide plenty of exercise, fresh air and sunlight. In special cases ultra-violet ray treatment is given by the use of the Alpine Lamp.

General. A definite health tradition and an excellent routine of health habits are well established, and the average child on entrance soon falls into line with this tradition and routine. Among contributing factors in the health training of the children are: constant supervision in the lavatories; strong emphasis on individual toilet articles; careful provision for keeping these separate; frequent changes of linens; close watching of cleanliness of person; emphasis on value of good teeth with dental examinations twice a year; and routine physical re-examinations. Hygiene teaching is in the regular curriculum of the school. Some of the school rooms make health posters as part of their class work. (# 88)

It has been thought advisable to give in some detail one illustration at least of an integral program of physical care. We shall now take up, one by one, the major phases of the physical care program.

I. FOOD

a. *The Child's Food Needs.* In a manual like the present one, a systematic outline of dietetics is not called for. It may, however, be worth while to summarize briefly a few of the more fundamental facts and principles.

The foods taken into the body may be roughly divided into the

tissue builders, the energy and heat producers, and the regulators. The body grows and is in constant need of repair. The tissue builders that supply most of the material for these processes of growth and repair are the proteins. Foods containing a high percentage of protein are: milk and cheese; eggs, lean meat, and fish; cereals; beans, peas and lentils; nuts. The heat and energy producers are carbohydrates,—starches and sugar,—and fats, though a large part of the protein in food is also used in the energy processes. Among the food sources for the carbohydrates found as starch are: bread, cereals, potatoes, beans, peas; for the carbohydrates found as sugar: sugar, syrups, jams, honey, cakes, sweet fruits; for the fats: milk, cream, butter, egg yolk, animal fats, salad oils, oily nuts.

In addition to protein, starch, sugar and fat, the body needs, also a number of minerals,—iron, calcium and phosphorus, and others,—for its proper growth, maintenance, and functioning. Moreover, a certain proportion of bulky foods contain indigestible fibres, or cellulose, which helps as roughage in the action of the intestines. Foods that meet either the mineral or the roughage and laxative needs are milk, whole wheat and whole cereals, fruits, and vegetables, especially the green, leafy and fibrous vegetables.

Finally, for proper growth, development, and protection, the body needs the important substances called vitamins or accessory diet factors. Seven vitamins have been identified to date, of which the first four,—vitamins A, B, C, and D,—play an indispensable part in health, growth, and development. The vitamins are found widely scattered in various foods. Some of the chief vitamin-carrying foods are: whole milk, butter, many fruits and vegetables (especially leafy vegetables and tomatoes), whole grain cereals, liver, and cod liver oil.

In addition to quality or kind of food, quantity is also of essential importance. The exact quantity, however, needed by a given child depends on a number of factors, chief among which are age and size, growth rate, activity, and state of nutrition. Ordinarily, for instance, a child ten years of age requires much more food than a child of five. Periods, too, of rapid growth, as during adolescence, commonly call for a much larger quantity of food. Moreover, an active child will usually require more food than a less active one.

The unit of measurement used for the quantity of food

needed, or, to be more exact, for the amount of body heat food gives, is the calorie. While the number of calories in all the ordinary foods has been accurately determined, the exact determination of the caloric needs of individual children or of children of a given age group is not so easy, as several variable factors enter into the calculation. The table of food requirements adopted by the Inter-Allied Scientific Food Commission of 1918 was the following: Up to six years, 1500 calories daily; from six to ten years, 2100; from ten to fourteen years, 2500; from fourteen to sixteen years, 2500 for girls, and 3000 for boys. Sister St. Joseph, of St. Anthony's Orphanage, Toledo, in her excellent pamphlet on institutional diet, adopts the following flexible caloric table; for 1-2 year olds, 900-1200 calories per day; for 2-5, 1200-1500; 6-9, 1400-2000; for 10-13, 1800-2200; for girls 14-17, 2200-2600; for boys 14-17, 2500-3000. (The Right Feeding of a Well Child, p. 3). An undernourished child will require more than a well-nourished child. An active rapidly growing boy of fifteen may require as much as 4000 calories a day.

Regarding the quantity of food, we are coming to feel that true appetite is rather more reliable as a guide to caloric need than is any other estimation of this figure. Any set of figures is a set of "averages", not "normals", and the variations that enter into the making up of these averages are very great. Supervision of the individual child must be fairly intimate, if a reliable estimate of his caloric need is to be made. In feeding large groups, there is danger of failing to individualize. (# 359)

b. *Principles.* The basic principles governing diet may be summed up as follows:

Food should be nutritive and the diet well-balanced, in accordance with the varying needs of the body for heat, energy, tissue-building and repair, regulation, protection, growth and development. It should contain in proper proportion the necessary protein, starch, sugar, fat, minerals, cellulose, and vitamins.

Food should be sufficient in quantity, chiefly in accordance with size, rate of growth, activity, and other factors.

Food should be palatable, and should be attractively served.

Having premised this very brief outline of food needs and dietetic principles, we may now pass to a consideration of some of the chief foods.

c. *Chief Foods.* (1) *Milk.* (a) *Importance.* *Whole, or unskimmed, milk* fulfils more of the food requirements of the child than does any other single food. It contains tissue-building and growth-producing proteins; it is rich in minerals, particularly lime and phosphorus that are so important for bone building; it supplies vitamins, especially A and B that are so essential to growth; its fat and sugar content is an important source of heat and growth. "Nothing can quite take its place. Because of its digestibility it is peculiarly adapted to the diet of the child" (Sr. St. Joseph, l. c., 10). The dietary of the growing child from infancy to adolescence should, it is recognized on all sides, be built upon milk and grain products as the foundation. "Milk is so necessary for children that when it is impossible to include all the recommended foods in the desirable amounts in the dietary the children's diet should be safeguarded by using not less than one quart of whole milk per day for each child" (Handbook for Institutions, Children's Bureau, 56).

(b) *Amount.* The amount of whole milk furnished each child will of course depend to a certain extent upon available finances and other local conditions.

Every child averages a quart of milk a day. (e.g., # 7, # 11)

Daily consumption of milk is: 25 gallons (# 65, population 101); 40 gallons (# 64, pop. 140; # 1, pop. 114; # 81, pop. 178; 1000 quarts (# 67, pop. 844).

All milk supplied to the children is pasteurized (e.g., # 80), at the institution (# 67).

All (# 71, # 81) or some (# 67) of the milk used is from the institution's own farm or dairy.

The ideal or optimal standard, illustrated in the foregoing excerpts, is a quart of whole milk a day for each child.

Allowance may be made where the rest of the institution's dietary is particularly nutritive and well-balanced. In such cases Sister St. Joseph (l. c., 10) recommends the following standard: "*With a diet in other respects sufficient* [*italics ours*], not less than one pint daily for every growing child; a pint and a half daily is better in-

cluding what the child takes in his other food or on cereals and in other ways than drinking". The optimal amount, however, of a quart a day becomes a minimum standard of safety, where it is not possible to have a diet otherwise as adequate and balanced as the institution desires. If financial resources in an institution are limited, as they usually are in our institutions, the supplying of milk in abundance ordinarily proves economical in the long run, because of its cheapness as compared with so many other foods and because of its value in building up body and health and in so preventing illness.

To most children not more than about a quart of whole milk a day should be given. Too much of it may decrease appetite, and so reduce use of fruits, vegetables, and other important foods. (# 353; cf. Richardson, in *Children*, Jan. 1927, ii, 41)

Not all the quart quota need be taken in beverage form or as straight milk. It can be taken with cereals, in custards, cocoa, etc. (# 72) "Some of this milk may be given in the form of cocoa, milk soups or milk puddings. When the supply of milk is sufficient, the meat ration may be decreased" (Program for Cath. Childcaring Homes, 23).

(c) *Pasteurized and Certified Milk*. Increasing emphasis is being put upon the importance of pasteurizing the milk supplied to children in institutions. The following comments from two of the leading authorities of the country speak for themselves:

With our present knowledge, it seems to me very important that all milk used in institutions should be pasteurized, particularly in view of our very recent authoritative teachings regarding the danger of unpasteurized milk, even if carefully certified, from the infecting organisms which cause Malta or undulant fever. Nothing other than pasteurized milk is safe. (# 364)

I have come to the conclusion that all milk should be first as clean as possible, and then pasteurized. The dangers of bovine tuberculosis, septic sore throat, etc., cannot otherwise be avoided. (# 362)

If the milk is pasteurized, orange or tomato juice should be introduced somewhere into the diet, to supply the anti-scorbutic vitamin C which is destroyed by the process of pasteurization. If skim-

med milk is used, the very important vitamin A is practically absent and the loss needs to be supplied by butter or cream. In whole or unskimmed milk are present both the growth-producing vitamin A and the energy-producing milk fat. If whole milk is used, the extra fats required as energy producers may come from butter substitutes or from vegetable oil.

(d) *Butter and Cheese*. "Butter should be served at least twice a day. Jams, jellies and syrups are never butter substitutes" (Program for Cath. Childcaring Homes, 23). While too much butter may have the same effect on the child's appetite as too much milk has, real butter cannot safely be dispensed with, in favor of butter substitutes from animal or vegetable fats, particularly where an adequate supply of *whole* milk is not available.

"Fresh 'cottage' cheese may be given upon dried bread to children of three or four years. Other forms of cheese are somewhat difficult of digestion and should not form a part of the diet of children before they are twelve or thirteen years old" (Sister St. Joseph, l. c., 11).

(2) *Cereals*. Flour, bread, breakfast foods, rolls, and so forth, made from the cereal grains, such as wheat, corn, oats, rye, barley, rice, are ordinarily the main source of supply for the starch lacking in milk. They are also important protein foods. Moreover, *whole grain* flours and cereals supply vitamin B and the three chief body minerals,—iron, calcium, and phosphorus,—as well as a good deal of roughage that contributes to the action of the intestines. Milk and the cereals are mutually complementary.

A large part at least of the cereal grains used in the child's diet, whether as bread or as breakfast cereals, should be whole grain. If white bread is used exclusively, more vegetables and fruits need to be supplied. "When the meal supplied is sufficient in quantity and variety, children will not eat too much bread" (Program for Catholic Childcaring Homes, 23). "Fresh bread should never be given, but stale bread cut thin and freshly dried in the oven until it is crisp is very useful. . . . Usually cereals may be given twice a day . . . with milk or thin cream; for variety, sometimes with butter; always with plenty of salt and with little sugar" (Sr. St. Joseph, l. c., 13-14).

Cereal foods, together with the other energy-giving foods that

provide starches, sugars and fats, are apt to bulk too large in the institution dietary, unless special pains be taken to avoid such over-balancing. The vegetables and fruits are essential to balance the diet.

(3) *Vegetables.* The vegetables are particularly valuable as suppliers of minerals, especially iron and phosphorus, of vitamins A, B and C, and of cellulose serving as roughage. The green leafy vegetables are of especial value for their vitamin A content, tomato and orange juice for A, B, and C, and nearly all vegetables for vitamin C. "Potatoes may be given once a day, thoroughly cooked, baked, boiled and mashed or stewed with milk, but not fried. . . . Most important are the green vegetables. . . . At least one green vegetable [should be given] every day and in summer two a day" (Sr. St. Joseph, l. c., 12-13). "In a general way the leafy vegetables, such as lettuce, and 'greens', are the most valuable; the legumes, like peas and beans, next, and the rooty vegetables, such as parsnips and turnips, the least in value" (Richardson, l. c., 41).

(4) *Fruits.* Fruits are valuable both for their sugar, mineral, and vitamin content and for their laxative effect. Either a fresh fruit or a dried fruit is needed daily, but in moderate quantity. The choice of fruits to be given depends largely upon the age of the children, the season of the year, and the constitution of the individual children themselves. If it be impossible to supply sufficient fruits and vegetables, *whole-grain* bread and cereals are all the more needed to help make up for the loss in minerals, vitamins, and roughage.

(5) *Eggs, Meat, and Fish.* "It is important that eggs should be fresh, and only slightly cooked, soft boiled, poached, or coddled; fried eggs should not be given to young children. . . . Considering their value as food, eggs at sixty-five cents a dozen are considerably cheaper than beefsteak at fifty cents a pound. . . . Most meats should be rare, and either scraped or very finely divided, as no child can be trusted to chew meat properly. Meats are best broiled or roasted, but should not be fried. . . . (Sr. St. Joseph, l. c., 11-12). If eggs are found to disagree with a particular child, it ordinarily does no harm to omit them entirely. The yolk of the egg is more important for the growing child than the white. If eggs, fish and meat be absent or scarce, the legumes (dried peas, beans, and lentils) may substitute somewhat for them as providers of protein, if plenty of milk is included in the diet.

(6) *Sweets*. If the child's diet is well balanced, he will get from milk and fruits all the sugar he needs. Sweets are preferably given at the end of meals as desserts. "Desserts [that may be given to young children] are: Up to six or seven years, junket, plain rice, cornstarch or farina pudding without raisins, baked custards, and, not more than once a week, a moderate amount of ice cream or fruit ice" (Sr. St. Joseph, l. c., 14). Inadvisable desserts are: "Up to seven or eight, all pies, tarts, and pastry of every description, jam, and preserved fruits; nuts, candy and dried fruits unless cooked. For older children free indulgence in these things, particularly between meals, is the cause of much trouble" (ibid.). On the moderate use of candy and other sweets, see also *infra*.

(7) *Liquids*. Water is necessary to keep the kidneys and skin active and to prevent constipation. The child should drink enough of it; exactly how much, however, cannot in the present state of our knowledge be decided scientifically. There are few, if any, authorities who today venture, with confidence, to suggest any exact amount,—such as four or five glasses a day,—as the ideal for all or "average" children. In the main, the child's natural thirst seems at present about as good an index as any to his need. Forcing or urging beyond desire is beginning to be looked upon askance, particularly in view of recent studies on the relation between cerebral hydration and epilepsy (Cf. Fay and others, in *International Clinics*, Sept. 1930, ser. 40, iii, 78-108).

Tea and coffee should be taboo, at least until the child is about twelve years old. Some would consider it advisable to withhold these two stimulants even longer, until the late teens.

As regards the use of candy and coffee, other considerations besides those of strict dietetic ideals should, in the view and practice of some institutions, be taken into account. We may,—or may not,—be agreed that the children are physically better off without candy, and, until the late teens, without coffee. But the question may be and is raised as to how far current social and psychological elements have to be taken into account. Some of our institutions take the position that the social and psychological values of moderate or modified use of candy and coffee counterbalance or outweigh the assumed physical disadvantages. The following excerpt is offered in illustration of this view.

All children relish candy. It adds much to their happiness, itself a big factor in child health. It is excess of candy, not candy in moderation, that is harmful. Many institutions give the children *good candy in moderate proportion*. All boys and girls have these things. Why should ours be deprived of what enters into the normal life of others? Should we not, in our effort to make our institutions one hundred per cent health-giving, at the same time avoid placing the children in artificial conditions?

We have found that after a certain age the majority of our children do not care for milk as a constant diet. Many of the children *over about twelve* can with difficulty, if at all, be kept satisfied with straight milk for breakfast. At the morning meal, practice is turning somewhat to *very weak coffee made with plenty of milk* for these *older children*. Cocoa served for supper answers as a change. (# 201)

In some sections of the country, goiter is widespread in institutions, owing to a deficiency of iodine in the local water, soil, and food. Iodized salt, commercially available, will help supply the deficiency. Its use, however, should be subject to the decision of the medical staff. There is question as to the advisability of routine or wholesale use. It is currently used in one institution at least (# 88) with excellent results. Administration of iodine or of thyroid extract for the same purpose pertains distinctly to the medical rather than to the physical care of the children.

(8) *General*. The following are some of the more important general principles regarding balance in diet.

- (a) The child's dietary is built primarily around milk and cereals, but the vegetables and fruits are extremely important elements in it. Eggs, meat and fish,—the fifth food-group,—are valuable elements in the child's diet, particularly in the diet of some children.
- (b) The current tendency is perhaps to supply the cereals more abundantly, relatively speaking, than is advisable, at the expense of the vegetables and fruits. This would suggest a caution against overbalancing the diet with too much bread, potatoes, rice, macaroni, hominy and other common cereals.

- (c) Perhaps *the most important* single dietetic principle, so far as balance is concerned, is: *Provide due proportions of food daily from each of the five main food-groups,—milk, cereals, vegetables, fruits, and eggs-meat-fish.*
- (d) If rigid economy be required, as it usually is, it is best to cut down the meat-fish item, but not to cut it down too much.
- (e) The child's appetite is not an adequate criterion of the kinds of food he needs. Many indispensable foods are not liked by some children, and many harmful foods are very much to their taste.
- (f) A simple, nutritive, well-balanced diet is preferable to an elaborate and richly flavored diet. The digestibility of foods served needs to be taken into account. In particular, fried and highly spiced foods should be served very sparingly, if at all.
- (g) In the light of the preceding discussion, and of the experience of our institutions as revealed during the study and through the menus actually in use, the following condensed key to balance in diet may be suggested:

One quart of milk daily for each child.

Bread and cereals daily,—both whole grain, in large part at least.

One and preferably two vegetables daily, besides potatoes or legumes, with a green leafy vegetable at least three or four times a week.

Fruit daily,—fresh (when obtainable), dried, or canned,—in moderate quantity.

Eggs, meat, or fish daily or three to four times a week, in moderate quantity.

Sweets sparingly and, ordinarily, only at end of meals.

The following table is appended as an aid in summarizing and visualizing the seven chief body needs and the contribution made to each of these seven by the five chief food groups. The table may

also aid in checking on the menus in use in institutions. This table is in no sense adequate or detailed enough for complete diet planning. It merely emphasizes the high points, so to speak, listing the kinds of food in rough groups and emphasizing the body needs for which they provide particularly well. Nor is the table in any sense a substitute for expert checking. It is intended only for rough checking. The crosses in the table mean that the given food group provides well for the given body need. The letters I, C, P under the heading "Minerals" are abbreviations for iron, calcium (lime), and phosphorus respectively, the three chief minerals needed by the body. The partially digestible or indigestible cellulose represents roughage.

Need → Supplied by ↓	Proteins	Starches	Sugars	Fats	Minerals	Vitamins	Cellulose
Milk:							
Whole . . .	+		+	+	C P	A B	
Skim . . .	+		+		C P	B	
Cereals:							
Whole . . .	+	+			I C P	B	+
Refined. . .	+	+					
Vegetables;							
Green, leafy.					I C P	A C	+
Legumes . .	+	+			I P	B C	+
Potatoes . .		+			P	C	
Fruits			+		I	B C	+
Eggs	+			+	I P	A B D	
Meat	+				I P	A B	
Fish	+					A B	
Codliver oil . .				+		A D	

(9) *Cooking and Serving.* Kitchen equipment will be dealt with in the chapter on Plant and Equipment. On the general subject of cooking there is an excellent and easily accessible literature. Here attention may be called merely to some points that have a special significance for the child-caring home.

- (a) Cereals need ordinarily to be cooked a long time and well.
- (b) Most vegetables on the other hand are better not overcooked or cooked too long. Too long cooking leads to

destruction of the vitamins and to the loss of the minerals. The water in which vegetables are cooked should be used in soups and sauces where possible, as it contains minerals.

- (c) In many institutions account may well be taken of national traditions and customs in the manner of preparing food, in so far as these traditions do not conflict with good health standards.
- (d) Food should be as palatable as it can be made. It is appreciably more palatable when served attractively, kept hot, etc.

d. *Menus and Menu-planning.* The chief qualities of a satisfactory institutional dietary are: balance, quantity, digestibility, palatability, variety, attractiveness, and reasonable economy.

Experience in the choice and preparation of institutional food, careful planning ahead, and a fair grasp of at least the fundamental facts and principles regarding body needs and the respective foods that fulfill them, will go far towards the provision of a suitable diet for the children. *Planning, however, a really adequate dietary is a task that calls for professional training and experience.* The ideal is a trained dietitian on the staff of every institution. Where there is no professional dietitian on the institution's staff, it is eminently worth while, if not imperative, to ask counsel and guidance from some one trained in dietetic science, and to have him or her review, and if necessary correct, the existing menu, and to help plan the future dietary.

Professional dietetic counsel is nearly always readily available to institutions from nutrition clinics, hospitals, or local health departments or health organizations. Frequently, too, aid can be sought from state departments of welfare or from departments of home economics in nearby universities, colleges, or high schools. Information and guidance may also be obtained for the asking from the U. S. Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Home Economics of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Education of the U. S. Department of the Interior, and the American Child Health Association, to mention only the more outstanding sources.

It is not only a valuable protective and constructive measure but also more commonly a paying investment to secure the tem-

porary, occasional, or periodic services of a trained dietitian, on a commercial basis. From the protective and constructive standpoint, the dietitian's counsel may help much in this all-important phase of the institution program. From a financial standpoint, changes and substitutes in the dietary may be suggested that will many times make up for the expenses involved in securing such services.

If the menus are planned a month ahead, it is easily possible to provide for both balance and quantity and at the same time to secure variety. Objections are sometimes raised against such planning ahead on the ground that it breaks down variety and leads to "the same old thing" on the same day of each week. Where such monotony and routine occur it may be the result, it is true, of making out the menu ahead of time. But it is not the result of planning. It is the result of drifting and of lack of planning.

e. *Food Habits.* Most of the more important food habits have already been suggested, either explicitly or implicitly, in the preceding section c. Table manners are dealt with in the chapter on Education. The three more important additional habits that may be touched upon are the following.

- (1) Eat slowly. The caution is necessary on account of the tendency of many children to bolt their food without taking time to chew it thoroughly. The following two excerpts suggest a practical plan that has apparently worked well.

It has been found that allowing the children to talk and visit with one another during their meals has helped to prevent too rapid eating. (# 81)

Sister Superior has remedied the difficulty of children eating too fast by reminding them that their noon hour is theirs and by leaving them free to visit with their neighbors providing they eat their dinner first. (# 79)

- (2) Do not drink water when you have food in your mouth. Water or other liquids may, of course, be taken before or after meals, and, for that matter, during meals. If, however, such liquids are used to wash down food, the salivary secretions which are of importance in the digestive process do not properly mix with the food.

- (3) Be cheerful when you eat. Worry, anxiety, anger, and similar emotions interfere with the digestive process, while pleasurable feelings contribute to it. This is one reason why, ordinarily, conversation at meals is better than silence. The decided trend towards permitting talking at all three meals and towards doing away with silence thereat has been noted in the chapter on Discipline.

f. *Food Dislikes.* A recent study of a hundred children of well-to-do parents showed that only nineteen of them ate heartily. Such a situation is not apt to be paralleled in the child-caring institution. Yet loss of appetite, and especially dislikes for particular dishes are not uncommon in child-caring homes and sometimes present rather knotty problems. Children may refuse to take either some of the necessary foods served or else a sufficient quantity thereof. Our institutions meet this problem in different ways. These ways may be reduced in the main to three methods of procedure: trusting to time, changing the food, changing the child.

(1) *Trusting to Time.* This does not mean just doing nothing. It does mean not making too much "fuss" over the matter, but rather "letting it ride", and trusting to the example of other children, to the health tradition of the school, and to normal hunger to solve the situation. Very commonly the plan seems to work well.

The children are urged to eat all the food placed before them, but are never forced. Sister Superior does not approve of forcing children to eat. It has been her experience that in nearly all cases they gradually learn to eat most kinds of food. (# 13, # 67)

When the boys are first admitted to the institution they seldom care for vegetables. They are not forced to eat them, but they are not given anything else as a substitute. They soon realize however, that, inasmuch as all the boys in the institution are eager for these special foods, there must be something to them. Thus the children learn by degrees to crave vegetables. Poster work in the school, practical demonstrations with the vegetables, and food talks by the superintendent help along the cause. (# 72)

The children are taught good health habits. If a child is indifferent regarding food in general or a particular food at meal

time, she is talked to quietly on the possibility that she is ill, care being taken however to avoid either deception or the appearance thereof. In order to show that she is healthy and well, she usually partakes of her full menu. (# 79)

Forcing children to eat or using too much pressure is inadvisable.

"To force a child to eat something he dislikes is difficult to do. The whole performance becomes tense, and atmospheric. Tears or sulks are not conducive to appetite or digestion. The well child had better be allowed to go hungry until he has sufficient appetite to eat the wholesome meal" (Sr. St. Joseph, l.c., 9).

Moreover, with some children, there may be a very real physical basis for refusal to eat a particular kind of food.

A rare or occasional child, who will not eat food entirely appropriate for other children and who at first may be suspected of whimsical food dislike, may have a particular food idiosyncrasy. His dislike may be based upon a very genuine and important sensitivity in relation to specific articles of food. (# 364)

In other cases, the child may simply be making a bid for attention, which, he finds by experience, may be gotten by refusing a food.

The greatest mistake is to force a child to eat what he dislikes. If you place too much stress on the fact that a given child is refusing a food, other children are apt to follow his example. All children are fond of notice, and seek it in one way or another. Our pedagogical principle of encouraging and emphasizing the good instead of drawing attention to the undesirable will solve the problem much more quickly than will insistence on falling into line. Forcing a child to eat against his will brings out the worst in him. If it be found that the *whole group* turns against a food, and cannot be induced to partake of it, it is usually a simple matter to provide a substitute. In classroom and elsewhere, the children should be taught that, if they wish strong healthy bodies, they must eat a little of all kinds of food set before them. (# 201)

Usually it is best to make little ado over a child's refusal, unless

the situation becomes serious for his health. In this case, the physician should be consulted. Generally speaking, light eating for a few days or missing a meal now and then does not hurt a normal, healthy child.

(2) *Changing the Food.* In some cases it may be advisable to substitute some other food of equal value. Perhaps the child is eating between meals, or is getting food too highly seasoned, or is eating too much sweets or meat, or even in some cases may be taking too much milk or else milk that is too rich for him. While milk is an essential, and, all things considered, the essential, in a child's dietary, nevertheless it is quite possible for him to drink too much of it, particularly if it is very rich, and thus his appetite for other essential foods fails. Many institutions have found it valuable to modify the food slightly, to vary methods of preparation, to change its appearance or seasoning, or to serve it mixed with other foods the children like.

For those children who do not like to drink milk, the milk is given flavored with a little sugar or vanilla or chocolate.
(# 11, # 13)

Spinach is not dropped from the menu, but is served in vegetable soup. (# 124)

If a particular kind of necessary food is not palatable to a given child, the food is prepared in such a way that it is disguised. (# 25)

Spinach was out of the question for our boys, until we mixed a little ham with it. (# 126)

Children will often relish certain foods raw which they dislike cooked. (# 72, # 344)

Some further good suggestions are contained in the excellent little leaflets put out by the Infant Welfare Society of Minneapolis. Of the methods suggested, some of the following are practicable for many and perhaps for most or all institutions.

Milk: drinking it through straws; flavoring with vanilla or chocolate syrup; serving in soups, creamed dishes, desserts, beverages such as cocoa, with cereals cooked in milk instead of water.

Vegetables: in soups, combinations of several vegetables (put new vegetables being served with others which the children like), vegetable meat loaf, jellied vegetables.

Cereals: serving a variety so the children do not become tired of any one kind; serving with a little jam or jelly; sprinkling a little cocoanut, brown sugar or prepared breakfast food over cooked cereal.

(3) *Changing the Child.* This is done either by accustoming him gradually to the new food or by general educational methods. The following are some of the plans that have been found practical and useful.

When a child does not like food that is being served, a very little is put on his plate and he is asked to try it. This amount is gradually increased. (# 13, # 27, # 108)

If a boy refuses to eat a given kind of food on account of dislike, nausea, or other reason, he is not forced to eat it. If, for instance, he does not like cereal, a very small portion is given to him at first, or else a little more sugar is put on it until he becomes accustomed to it, and then later the sugar is diminished or else omitted when he is used to the cereal. (# 66)

The sisters have found that, in training the child to eat the right foods, much is accomplished by telling him the story of the vegetable and informing him about the minerals and vitamins it contains. No compulsion has been found necessary. (# 39)

The children learn good food habits by observation of the girl responsible for their table. Usually a little story is told about the vegetable they may dislike. The good in the vegetable is pointed out as well as the way in which it helps children to grow up, to become strong, and to keep well. The children easily fall into line and eat what is served them. (# 64)

Children learn to eat food placed before them, first because they are hungry as a result of plenty of fresh air and active play, and secondly because they are taught in school what foods are best for them and make them grow. (# 71)

Where children have been noticed not eating the food served, sister has found that by having a quiet offhand talk with the

child to learn why she does not care for the particular dish and by then telling the story of the vegetable and sometimes by taking a trip through the children's own garden, she has helped the child a great deal in overcoming the dislike. (# 81)

If the children have their own small vegetable gardens, interest in and liking for the vegetables they themselves grow will usually develop spontaneously. (# 317)

When a child first enters the school, he does not care to eat anything but beans. His taste and likes are developed largely by learning about the vegetables through school teaching. (# 94—an Indian School)

Bad food habits are ignored. The sister thinks it is poor policy to emphasize such habits. Usually a child just falls naturally into line. If, however, the child persists in such habits, she is sent to the infirmary. (# 11)

The last excerpt suggests an important caution. The more common causes of dislikes on the part of children are strangeness of food, early home training, and imitation of elders. Other causes, of a psychical nature, are apt to enter in, particularly negativism and the craving for attention. On the other hand, the causes may be underlying physical or psychical ones which call for the attention of the physician or psychiatrist. In persistent and serious cases of bad food habits, an examination needs to be made by the physician or psychiatrist to find out the underlying cause. In fact in all cases, even the less persistent and serious ones, the first step to be taken is to find the cause of the dislike, and to endeavor to treat the cause itself.

2. CLOTHING

a. *Principles.* The chief requirements of clothing are that it should be healthful, serviceable, comfortable, becoming, and individual in style. It should be healthful, that is, it should protect the body from heat, cold, moisture, and injury. It should be serviceable, of the best material consistent with the institution's finances. Generally speaking, better material is more economical in the long run as it lasts longer. It should fit well and be comfortable, not too loose and not too tight. It should be becoming, in accordance both with the individual child's physical make-up and with the prevalent

styles. It should be, so far as possible, individual in style; this means variety. The subject of uniforms in institutions has been dealt with in the chapter on Mental Health. Each child should have exclusive ownership of his own clothes. It is common experience that, if the foregoing "clothing essentials" are looked after, the clothing itself will, generally speaking, be better taken care of by the children.

The following excerpt may serve as an illustration of the manner in which the principles regarding clothing are carried out in one of our institutions.

Much thought and attention are given to the appearance of the children's clothes. Their clothes are in good style and fit well. The girls all wear white middies to school with different colored skirts and wear blue middies before and after school. They have special dresses for week-day Mass and special dresses and coats for Sundays. Each child is given three suits of underwear of very good quality. Each child has everyday shoes and Sunday shoes. Much attention is paid to both the quality and the fit of shoes. The sisters feel that it is very economical to buy the best quality of shoes and to be sure that they fit the children. The boys wear white waists and special suits on Sundays. They always wear neck ties. The boys' clothes seem always to be in good condition. The children change underwear once a week, and more often if necessary. Both the boys and the girls are taught to take good care of their clothing. All the children seem very anxious to make a good appearance. (# 67)

b. *Amount and Changes.* As for the amount of clothing provided for each child, this varies somewhat from institution to institution. All institutions supply at least two sets of outer garments. Many supply three, four, or even more.

No uniforms are worn. The girls have a play dress, a work dress and a school dress. Boys have serge trousers for dress wear and khaki and corduroy for play and work. Each boy has a half dozen or more shirt waists which are changed as occasion requires. (# 52)

If a child, on admission, is in need of clothing, she is furnished with three full new sets. Clothing is changed once a week, thus

allowing one set in the laundry, one in process of repair, and one ready for emergency or the regular weekly change. (# 64)

Uniforms are not in use among the girls. Underclothing is changed two or three times a week. Shoes are bought wholesale and fitted to each girl. Pumps and sneakers are provided. (# 6)

Each child is allowed four or five changes of clothing. Undergarments are changed three times a week; also dresses if necessary. Shoes are chosen to fit well. (# 13, # 79)

Each child has dressing gown and slippers of attractive colors. (# 25, # 64, # 79, # 81)

Each boy is provided with bedroom slippers and bath robe. (# 80)

Boys wear white shirt waists and moleskin trousers. Waists are changed as needed. Each boy has two pairs of trousers. In cold weather, sweaters are used on the playground, but each boy has his own overcoat for city wear. For general wear, the boys use coveralls which are put on over the school clothes. Each boy has two pairs of dress shoes, school shoes and playground shoes. The shoes are bought wholesale and fitted to each boy. No boy at any time wears another boy's clothing. (# 7)

The girls wear bloomers on the playground, and knickers and woolen stockings for skating and coasting in the winter. (# 27)

The institution has a shoe supply room, well stocked with shoes of all types and varieties. A rubber-soled tie is worn for general school purposes; patent leather pumps for dress. One sister is in charge of this room. All shoes are carefully fitted. Older girls are permitted to make their own selection. The average cost of shoes is \$2.25 a pair, if purchased in lots of more than a hundred. Sneakers cost from \$0.85 to \$1.25 a pair; last summer a thousand pairs were bought at an average cost per pair of \$0.50. (# 11)

The shoe room is in the basement of the main building and is conducted very much like a retail shoe store. Here new shoes are fitted to children according to type of costume. The supply includes white, tan and patent leather shoes, low cuts

and high cuts, all of the best quality and all of the latest fashions, except the extreme high heel which is taboo. (# 14)

Shoes are all matched and fitted. They are ordered in wholesale lots, after a salesman has measured each child. (# 97)

Shoes are bought wholesale. The institution has found it economical to have shoes half soled, at \$0.65 a pair regardless of the amount of work to be done on them, through arrangement with a local shoe repairing shop. It is felt, however, that shoes are often too uncomfortable following repair, on account of roughness of the leather, nails, and so forth. (# 52)

Recommendations. In view of the experience of our institutions, the following may be suggested as desirable clothing requirements.

Amount. At least two, and preferably three, changes of outer garments as minimum, with more changes for shirt waists and washable dresses.

At least three changes of underclothing.

For winter use, overcoat, and, for boys at least, sweater.

Coveralls or overalls for the boys at play time,—serviceable and economical under most conditions.

Rubbers: depending upon kind of shoes worn.

Bath robes or dressing gowns and bedroom slippers.

Changes. Nightwear weekly; underwear, at least weekly, but preferably oftener.

Stockings preferably at least twice a week.

c. *Marking.* Some institutions mark the name of the child on each garment; others, the child's number; others, the number for the younger children and the name for the older children of high school age; others, the group number and name or initials of the child. One institution (# 55) uses the initials of the child. Some marking is, of course, necessary. For convenience, the number system is the simplest. So far as protecting the individuality of the child is concerned, either the name or the initial system is preferable. As one superior expresses it: "marking of names is preferable to marking of numbers. No one likes to be 'numbered'" (# 117).

The initial system, for smaller institutions at least, seems best to combine convenience with individualization.

d. *Ready-made versus Home-made Clothing.* Some of our institutions prefer to purchase ready-made all or most of the clothing for the children, while others prefer purchasing the textiles and making up the garments within the institution.

All clothes, except topcoats, are made at the institution. The sister in charge of the dressmaking room had formerly been an experienced first-class modiste. The superior feels that, as making the clothing at the institution is so much cheaper than buying it ready-made, she would have another sister technically trained for this position, if the present sister in charge of the dressmaking room were transferred. The latter is assisted by two lay women. The undergarments are made by special workers in two rooms apart from the room in which the dresses are made. The dresses are of good quality, fit well, and are attractively made.

Nothing whatever is lost by the fact that they are home-made. Each girl has six dresses,—two for play, two for school, one for weekday chapel, and one for Sundays and dress occasions. The play dresses are cotton prints of many different colors. The school dresses for the older girls consist of dark blue serge skirt, a white wash middie and a dark blue tie; for the younger girls, a Scotch plaid skirt, with white middie and red tie; the weekday dresses are of dark blue soft serge, attractively made on straight lines, with white linen collar and cuffs. The Sunday dresses are bright-colored printed silks or plain-colored silks made in the latest mode. A Sunday dress of this kind costs approximately \$3.00. (# 11)

The sisters make for the boys all waists, blouses, knickers, and summer khaki suits, and also the marine uniforms for the members of the band. It has been the experience of the institution that knickers purchased ready-made are usually too skimpy and tight. Those made in the institution are made full size, and hence are less liable to rip. The waists and shirts are of better material than is found in ready-made wear. The rest of the clothing for the children is purchased ready-made from outfitters who sell at wholesale to the institution. (# 72)

Sometimes we are able to make excellent bargains with merchants who do not wish to carry over stock. (# 13)

"We secure material from wholesale houses and have the dresses made at our home, then they fit, are comfortable, made better and more economical. It is preferable for children's clothes to be made at the home, but where the children number from three to five hundred it is impossible for us and we have to buy from the factory. If we can arrange for the factory to use our material and patterns, not so bad; but have to put up with their thread and poor sewing. When getting cotton things made we are not paying for high-class work; the factory will allow us to furnish material and patterns but not the thread. We have to put up with what we call basting thread and have to go over the sewing after the first wash. In smaller institutions we generally make our own clothing. Guard against getting all material or several bolts alike, or you will have a uniform; this can be broken up by putting different kinds in several dresses, combining materials that are different in the same dress but in different ways if you use these materials in other dresses, and not have the dresses all made up the same way." (Sr. Estelle, in Proc. 14th Nat. Conf. Cath. Char., 1928, 445.)

"*Boys don't like homemade clothes.* The winter underwear we buy, but have made summer underwear. . . . Ready made [summer underwear is] very poor. . . . We buy boys' suits." (Sr. Fidelis, *ibid.*, 447.)

"As to whether it pays to make your own clothes or buy them, depends on whether you have the place to buy. . . . In the wholesale houses some will inform you when there is a sale on. If you get in touch with these men and tell them you want to look for bargains, you won't have to spend all day Sunday looking out for bargains in the newspapers; these men will post you when the sales are on. Wholesale houses have a day set aside for institutions before the jobbers come on. Sometimes jobbers come around and ask more than retail; they come around and say they have a relative who is a priest in this diocese, or tell you they have always sold here—they know when a change has taken place in the particular institution, tell you how many relatives they have that are nuns, how many sisters they have who are nuns—that is all bunk, not business. . . . Don't dress the children alike" (Father Daniel, *ibid.*, 447-48).

The foregoing excerpts and quotations contain a number of practical suggestions which recommend themselves for consideration. But, as to the basic problem of ready-made versus home-made clothing, experience and views differ so widely that it does not seem advisable to offer blanket recommendations. We need much more detailed study of this tangled question. Moreover, local conditions, resources and limitations must largely determine choice.

There appears, however, to be no difference of view upon the following points:

- (1) If the institution be meagerly staffed or under-staffed, the making of clothing may absorb an enormous amount of time and attention that are much more urgently needed for the direct training and constructive supervision of the children themselves. This question can easily become a critical or crucial one.
- (2) When clothing, particularly outer garments, are made up at the institution, the most careful planning and resourcefulness are needed to prevent "standardizing".
- (3) Where most of the clothing is bought ready-made, provision should be made for older girls in particular to learn to make their own clothes.

Most of the institutions in which there are girls old enough encourage the girls to make some at least of their own dresses, partly as a matter of economy, partly as a matter of training, and frequently in connection with the domestic science courses.

All of the older girls make some of their own dresses. Some of the summer dresses are made by the sister, in different styles and patterns. The children choose both the material (by sample) and the style. (# 27)

Some of the dresses are bought ready-made; others are made by a group of girls taking sewing under instruction. (# 39)

The older girls are permitted to select material and to make their own dresses. Younger girls are permitted to do this under supervision. Each girl is free to select her own preference in style. (# 94)

That girls should get most of their training in this phase of domestic science by actual practice in dressmaking is a counsel too obvious to call for emphasis. It is well for boys, too, to learn at least the rudiments of button-sewing and repairing, and patching. Most "grown-up boys" are called on from time to time to rise to the heights in meeting clothing emergencies!

Where parents, relatives, or guardians can afford to provide, in whole or in part, for the clothing needs of the child, they should be encouraged and held to this obligation. This eases a little the strain on the finances of the institution. Then, too, children are apt to take better care of clothes given to them by their relatives. Moreover, such clothing serves to strengthen the ties of kinship and affection between the child and his parents or relatives.

e. *Made-over Clothing.* Some institutions find it quite possible to make over a good deal of the outgrown clothing, without in any manner reducing the excellent clothing standards that prevail, or lowering the child's self-respect.

Much very attractive clothing has been made for the smaller children out of the material from older children's gowns. The younger child's dress is, as a finished product, quite as artistic as, if not more so than, the older girl's dress of the same material. (# 14)

Clothing is so made over that no child ever looks in the least as if he or she were wearing someone else's clothes, nor does he or she look a whit out of style or different from any other children outside the institution. (# 71)

f. *Records and Requisition System.* Many institutions, particularly larger ones, find it valuable, if not indispensable, to use a record and requisition system for clothing. The record system should be as simple as is consistent with efficiency, lest its drawbacks outweigh its advantages.

Records are kept in each clothing room of articles distributed to each child. Records are also kept of the distribution of goods by the yard, in order to ascertain the number of articles made from any given amount of material. All textile material is checked on arrival, and exact records are kept of it in its circulation between departments of the institution. Samples

of goods are sent to the institution, and selection is made by the Superior. If the supply of clothing is running down, the Superior is informed. All requisitions for material or clothing must be approved by the Superior. (# 11)

Each department or group makes out a requisition for all its needs; the requisition is then submitted to the Sister Superior who approves or rejects it according to principle. If she feels that there are too many requisitions for the same thing, she will talk the matter over with the group mother. This happens rarely, because the sisters are economically trained. (# 14)

The group mothers usually get their supplies of clothes once a month. When the children need new clothes, the group mother makes out an order, sends it to the sister in charge of the clothing department, and gets the supply from her. All the children are given complete new outfits at Christmas time and at Easter. (# 67)

g. *Repairs.* The repairing of clothes is a task that bulks large in the routine of any good-sized institution. Various plans are in vogue in our institutions for keeping clothing in good repair. In some, there is a repair room in charge of a sister or of a laywoman, who may be assisted by some of the older girls and sometimes by some of the boys. In some institutions under the group system, minor repairs are looked after in the respective groups, while major repairs are done by the person or persons in charge of general repair work for the institution. A number of institutions have found by experience that the installation of a darning machine has been an enormous saving of worry, time, and expense. The initial cost is relatively slight compared with the great saving that follows. A machine that clamps flat metal buttons on underwear and play clothes is also in great favor, buttons being sewn of course on better outer garments.

Some institutions have found it feasible and helpful to interest and secure the voluntary service of groups of laywomen who come to the institution for a certain number of hours each week to help in the sewing and repair work. This plan has many values besides the obvious one of aid in repairs.

Every Thursday five or six members of the institution's Aux-

iliary spend some hours sewing at the institution. Under the leadership of a very capable and active chairman, many garments are made and mended, and a great deal of sewing is done. (# 81)

The Sewing Guild holds regular meetings, doing its work in a room on the second floor. The members are served lunch on the days they come. (# 87)

h. *Laundry*. The subject of laundries and laundering is dealt with more fully in the chapter on Plant and Equipment. The detailed arrangements for sending and sorting laundry necessarily differ according to local conditions. The following is merely given as an illustration of a system that is working very successfully in two of our institutions.

Each child has her own laundry bag. The evening before her bathing day, she finds the laundry bag on her bed in the dormitory with a complete change of clothes. The following day the soiled clothes are returned in the same laundry bag to the clothes room where they are sorted and then sent to the main laundry. After the clothes are washed, they are returned to the clothes room where they are again sorted, mended if necessary, and placed in lockers until the next bathing day. (# 13, 81)

3. SLEEP

a. *Need*. "The physiologic mechanism of sleep is not well understood, but it is firmly established that sleep is necessary for the repair and rejuvenation of body tissues. During sleep voluntary activity is suspended and bodily energy is conserved for growth" (Wood, Health education, 25). Both adults and children make up during sleep for the wear and tear of waking hours. For children in particular, plenty of sleep opens the way for healthy, normal growth.

b. *Amount*. If we may judge from the data gathered during the present study, the children of elementary school age in our institutions are getting about ten hours of sleep at night on the average, with a range between $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 11. Children of pre-school age, between 3 and 6 years, are getting from 11 to 12 hours. Those of high school age average about 9, and range from about $8\frac{1}{2}$ to $10\frac{1}{2}$.

It is not possible in the present state of our knowledge to set down with minute accuracy the amount of sleep needed by children of any given age group. Estimates by those best equipped technically to form independent judgment differ considerably in detail. It seems to be pretty generally agreed that children under about 6 years of age need from 11 to 13 hours of sleep a day; those between about 6 and 10 years of age, from 10 to 12 hours a day; those between 10 and 14, from 9 to 11 hours a day; those from 14 to 17, from 8 or $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 hours a day. These are not iron rules in any sense; they are flexible averages struck from a half dozen of the more commonly used sleep scales. They represent only approximations to exactitude and are suggested merely as general guides. Needs differ according to age, individual constitution, and other conditions.

c. *Hours of Rising and Retiring.* The more common rising hour for children in our institutions is from six to seven o'clock. In some institutions, the rising hours are staggered, the older children rising on the average around 6:00 and the younger children on the average around 7:00. In others, the children sleep from one half to three-quarters of an hour longer during the summer months than during the winter months, or vice versa.

The hours for retiring range from 6:30 and in some cases earlier, for the very young children, to 7:00 in some institutions for the children under 8, 10, or 12 years of age, up to 9:00 or even to 9:30 or 10:00 for the high school children, particularly those of the upper grades of high school. The more common hours of retiring for children of the middle elementary grades are between 7:30 and 8:30. In some institutions (e.g., # 12, # 27, # 29, # 60), the children retire about an hour later during the summer than they do during the winter.

Some of the institutions have a rather complicated schedule for rising and retiring. The following are two examples.

The pre-school children (3-6 yrs.) rise daily at 6:40, and retire at 7:00 in the winter and 8:00 in the summer. The juniors (7-11 yrs.) retire at 9:00 and rise as follows: during the school year, on Wed. and Fri. at 6:15, on Sun. at 6:30, on Mon., Tues. and Thurs. at 6:40 and on Sat. at 6:45. During the summer they rise at 7:00. The seniors (12 and over) rise at 5:55 daily, except on Saturday. (# 88)

During the school year the children rise at 6:00 on Mon., Tues., Thurs. and Fri. and at 7:00 on Wed. and Sat. Those between 6 and 10 years of age retire at 8:00; those over 10, between the hours of 9:00 and 9:30. During the summer time, the children rise at 6:30 on Mon., Tues., Thurs. and Fri., and at 7:00 on Wed. and Sat. They retire between 9:00 and 9:30. On Sundays throughout the year, the children rise at 6:30 and retire around 9:00 or 9:30. The very young children, under 6 years of age, usually retire earlier than the children who are older. (# 66)

Our children appear to be getting the amount of sleep required, and varying age requirements as to amount seem to be well provided for. A good deal is to be said in favor of any system that brings about a little variety, whether between winter and summer, between school days and holidays, between weekdays and Sundays, or along lines of more complex variation as illustrated in the two hour schedules given in detail. All of us appreciate a little change at times in our rising and retiring schedules. Such changes break monotony and routine in the institution, and help to emphasize holy day and holiday.

Apart from regular schedule hours of rising and retiring, a great many of our institutions, and perhaps all or nearly all of them, make allowance for special occasions, entertainments, parties, moving pictures, athletic matches, and so forth, by permitting the children to remain up an extra half-hour or hour. Such privileges have a value from the point of view of discipline and freedom, and, if the children are ordinarily receiving plenty of sleep, do not do them any appreciable harm.

d. *Rest Periods.* A great many of the institutions arrange to have the smaller children, particularly those under 6 or of pre-school age, rest for about an hour in the afternoon. In some institutions for the very small children a morning rest period is also provided. An afternoon rest period is very commonly assigned for older children in the nutrition class. The rest is preferably taken lying down or reclining, not merely with head on arms at a desk.

The pre-school children have certain periods in the morning and in the afternoon for rest. Children of school age do not have special rest periods during the day, unless they are sub-

normal or in poor physical condition. The rest periods are under the supervision of the infirmarian. The children under 6 years of age are not put to bed for their naps, but are taught to recline in comfortable little chairs in such a way as to lose themselves in sleep. (# 14)

Children under six have daily rest periods. (# 39, # 64, #79, # 80)

All children under six have daily naps, and in summer usually rest from 1:00 until 3:00 p. m. (# 81)

e. *Sleep Habits.* Ordinarily where the children are in good health and have an active and occupied play-and-work schedule for the day, they are quite ready to sink into sleep at once on retiring. Good healthy tiredness, short however of real physical exhaustion, is on all sides recognized as the best of sleep-bringers.

In nearly any institution, there will occur cases of broken sleep and restless tossing, of talking or even of walking in sleep, and of nightmare or night terrors. Cases that are at all habitual or persistent call for physical examination, and in some instances for psychical examination. More commonly, back of these occurrences are physiological disturbances due to indigestion, lack of sufficient exercise, or graver causes. The causes may be psychical in nature. Treatment must differ according to cause.

Violent exercise, over-excitement and boisterous play immediately before retiring may make it a little harder for many children to go to sleep quickly. The following plans help calm down the children before getting under the covers, and have other obvious values.

We find that the children's story hour which we have established works well. It quiets them down before night prayers and sleep. (# 13)

The children are allowed to remain in the reading room a while before going to bed. (# 108)

The children retire according to age groups, the younger ones going to bed earlier than the older. However, an hour before they all retire, they are allowed to do anything they please within reason in the dormitory, with their own things, at their lockers or at their bedside. They may sew or read or rearrange their belongings, or gather in little groups to talk over their particular affairs. This is called the "children's hour".

The older boys and girls from the seventh grade up are allowed to read a while in bed after they have retired for the night. When the children desire to sleep and not to read, the light in the dormitory is turned off. If a particular child happens to be the only one in the "sleepy part" of the dormitory who wants to read, this child is allowed to go over to the section of the dormitory where the others are still reading. Those children who desire to sleep do not seem to mind the lights on and have been very generous in their attitude. They state that sometime they may desire to read when the others desire to sleep, and this is a very general feeling. There are not many nights, however, when many of the children want to read after they go to bed. Ordinarily their day has been so full that bed time is sleep time. (St. Joseph's, Erie.)

"Often when the boys are in bed the Sisters will read to them. They enjoy this and will rush to bed on these nights in order to allow as much time as possible before the lights go out. The boys discuss this book, the story and the characters and other books they have read with Sister" (St. Vincent's, Govans, Md., Proc. 14th Nat. Conf. Cath. Char., 1928, 277).

A short account of the plans in effect both at St. Joseph's, Erie, and at St. Vincent's, Govans, Md., was given in the *Catholic Charities Review*, Apr. 1926, x, 143, with the following comment, "Despite difficulties which this little privilege may seem to interpose, the sisters who permit it say that it works well, and therefore, it is worth trying. Certainly, it creates a homelike touch for the children." It goes without saying that where reading in bed is in vogue, the dormitory lights should be so arranged as to obviate eye-strain.

f. *General.* Each child should have *its own separate bed*. Sleeping more than one in a bed has been found entirely unsatisfactory and decidedly inadvisable in all our institutions. That the bed should not be too soft, and that the covering should be sufficient but not too warm, are well recognized principles. Ordinarily it is well to train children to sleep on their sides. The dormitories should have good cross-ventilation, and the temperature therein should be fairly low, sixty degrees Fahrenheit or under at least.

The more common custom in our institutions seems to be to change bedding weekly. (# 67, # 71, # 80, # 81).

Bedding is changed weekly, both sheets and pillow cases. (# 95)

Bed linen is changed weekly. Bed clothing is aired for an entire day each week, at which time the beds are inspected, and cleaned with a disinfectant. (# 93)

4. ELIMINATION

a. *General.* All that need be said on this general subject has been well summed up as follows:

"An attempt should be made to secure a bowel movement at a fixed time, such as immediately after breakfast or supper. Health depends to a great extent on the elimination of waste products. Calls to the toilet should be obeyed promptly. For that reason it is essential that an institution should be equipped with sufficient toilets. Satisfactory elimination is prompted by eating fruits, green vegetables, and whole-grain cereals, and by drinking plenty of water.

"The bladder should be emptied immediately on rising and before retiring, with at least one or two additional evacuations during the day. Children's eliminative processes are more active than those of adults. This fact should be kept in mind by persons who undertake the children's training. Regular and fixed times for going to the toilet should be established" (Handbook for institutions, U. S. Children's Bureau, 49).

b. *Enuresis.* (1) *The Problem.* We lack adequate statistical evidence on the exact incidence of enuresis or bed wetting among children, but that the proportion is considerable is well known. In our most recently published study, among the 355 children placed in foster homes by private agencies, there were 46 cases of enuresis (Reconstructing Behavior in Youth, Healy and others, 1929, 57). How far this proportion is typical of institution children is hard to say, but at any rate enuresis is common enough in institutions to constitute an annoying and troublesome, even if not a critical, problem. It is not only annoying and troublesome to the staff, but it is frequently harmful in many ways to the child himself. Ordinarily the control of the function should be well established by the

end of the second or third year. If it is not, then the child needs attention.

(2) *Causes.* Enuresis may be a result or symptom of any one or more physiological causes, such as disease of the genito-urinary tract, anemia, malnutrition, gastro-intestinal trouble, rickets, nervous instability, local irritations, and so forth. Such cases constitute, it is estimated, probably not more than ten per cent of all cases. The remaining cases are chiefly matters of habit. It is very doubtful what part, if any, inheritance plays in the matter (Cf. Healy, l. c., 59). Lack of proper early training is the more common cause.

(3) *Treatment.* The various methods of treatment may be roughly divided into three types: medical measures; simple physical measures; educational methods. *The first thing in all cases is to determine the cause or causes.*

(a) *Medical Measures.* In cases where enuresis is at all frequent or habitual, the routine procedure is to have a thorough physical examination made by the house physician to determine if there be some distinct physiological or pathological condition of which the enuresis is a symptom or result (e.g., # 11, # 14, # 64, # 67, # 71, # 75, # 81). Evidence seemingly is beginning to accumulate to the effect that an occasional case of enuresis may be due to endocrine disturbances (# 88). Where malnutrition or similar conditions appear to be responsible, general building-up measures, including ultra-violet ray treatment, have been found of value (# 88). Circumcision is indicated in some cases, and occasionally helps (e.g., # 71, # 88).

(b) *Simple Physical Measures.* Some of the more common measures that have been found of use in our institutions are illustrated in the following excerpts.

The children are gotten up at 10:00 at night and at 5:00 in the morning. In one case, elevating the foot of the bed seemed to have had some good effect. (# 18)

There has been very little trouble with the problem. The children are gotten up at certain hours of the night, and liquids are limited in the afternoon and evening. (# 26)

At the present time there are very few cases. The children

are gotten up at different periods during the night. It was found, too, that the children sometimes did not have sufficient bed covering and that when these children were given extra blankets there was less enuresis. (# 13, # 52, # 112)

Children are deprived of liquids, including milk, after 4:00 in the afternoon. (# 75)

The problem of enuresis has been very considerably solved by calling the children several times during the night, by restricting the intake of liquids in the late afternoon, and by having the toilets easily accessible. (# 93)

There is comparatively little enuresis. The children are gotten out of bed at night. (# 95, # 97, # 100).

Little trouble is had with the children regarding enuresis. They are taught to get up during the night. The lights are left lit at night in the lavatories and in the halls. It is felt that many of the children form this habit because they are afraid of the dark. It was found that by leaving the light lit in halls and lavatories and by training the children to get up, there has been very little trouble. (# 60)

These simple physical measures have brought success in many instances. They may be summed up as follows:

Cut down water and other liquid intake after four or five o'clock in the afternoon.

Wake the child at about 9:00 or 10:00 in the evening and again at 4:00 or 5:00 in the morning. These two measures are the ones most commonly used in our institutions, particularly the second one. It should perhaps be emphasized that when the child is awakened to go to the toilet he should be awakened *very thoroughly*, and should go *immediately*.

Provide sufficient bed covering to keep the child comfortably warm, particularly in winter time.

Keep the lights burning in hall and lavatory, and have toilets easily accessible to dormitory.

Raising the foot of the bed does not seem to be in very common use, but, apart from the publicity given the child, no harm can be done by trying it.

Providing a well-balanced diet helps considerably,—especially providing plenty of fruits, vegetables and whole grain cereals to facilitate intestinal action, and avoiding highly seasoned foods and too many sweets.

(c) *Educational Measures.* The following are some of the typical educational measures used by our institutions, *in addition to* the medical and physical measures resorted to.

Enuretic children are deprived of certain pleasures in order to induce them to exercise greater control. A motor trip was to be given to the children. One boy who was very eager to go on the tour was told that he could go only on condition that he would keep dry at nights for three weeks at a stretch. One failure was to be considered a serious offence and the whole bargain would be off. The boy put every effort into curing himself, finally succeeded, and was permitted to go on the tour. (# 23)

In any case of enuresis, every effort is made to determine whether or not there be an underlying physiological cause. If not, simple physical measures such as those mentioned above are adopted. No punishment is meted out. The child is talked to apart, his pride is appealed to, and incentives are proposed for overcoming the habit. (# 64)

Children are deprived of outings which they particularly crave, but on the other hand they are rewarded when they have been able to correct the habit of enuresis. (# 75)

The enuresis problem has been handled in the following way. A medical examination is first made to determine whether or not there is any underlying physiological cause. If such is found, every effort is of course made to remedy it. If the cause be indifference or laziness, the child is deprived of some special treat. If the cause be merely habit or lack of training, distinct from real laziness or wilfulness, an appeal is made to the children's pride. Granting awards to the children is not looked upon as an ideal plan, but sometimes the offer of an award of a penny to a small child is made as an incentive, other rewards being offered to older children in keeping with their age. (# 81)

Experience in the institution has been that punishment is not a desirable or effective measure in enuresis cases. (# 94)

So far as educational measures are concerned, the most successful institutional experience would suggest the following counsels. Shaming the child publicly and broadcasting his weakness, whether this be done implicitly or explicitly, by act or by word, is recognized as a very undesirable measure. Wilful or deliberate enuresis is rare, although an occasional child may resort to it more or less deliberately to have his own way, to get attention, to be the center of commotion, to break in upon humdrum, to satisfy a grudge, or as a means of solving some conflict or other. A little more frequently, indifference or laziness is responsible. But ordinarily the enuresis is not the child's own fault. It is due to some physical cause or else to lack of training.

If the child's weakness is made known in such manner that shame and ridicule come to him, he may easily develop an inferiority feeling with its many undesirable consequences to moral and mental health. Moreover, he may lose confidence in himself, and anxiety and fear of ridicule may even act as a hindrance to development of control. The separate dormitory for bed wetters is from this standpoint not an ideal solution. The same may be said of requiring the child to wash the bed clothes or take them to the laundry. These two measures penalize alike the innocent and the "guilty". The second of these two measures may be advisable at times in the family home, but, where resorted to in the institution, it almost inevitably gives publicity to the child's weakness and submits him to taunt and ridicule on the part of the other children.

On the educational side the measures that have proven most effective and have at the same time saved the child from severity on the one hand and from too much public shame on the other, may be summed up as follows.

Secure the good will and active cooperation of the child. Make sure that he himself wants to overcome the habit and is willing really to try.

Make clear to him that it is *his own problem* and that nobody else can correct the habit but himself.

Make every appeal possible to his good will, his intelligence and enlightened self-interest, neither exaggerating nor minimizing the gravity and consequences of the habit, but bringing

them home to him in his own language and in accordance with his own individual outlook on life.

Make clear to him your own confidence that he can make good.

Put the stress on encouragement rather than on scolding, on the positive side rather than on the negative.

Use punishment and reward moderately, if at all. Punishment, if given, better consists of deprivations of privileges and pleasures.

A progress chart has been found very helpful in most cases. It is worth while, once the good will of the child has been secured, to have him keep a record, on a chart or calendar, of his successes, by pasting on a gold star or a red star or some other symbol for those nights when he has kept dry. In some cases, it is customary to use a gold star for the successful nights and a red star for the unsuccessful, but, all things considered, it is probably best to mark up only the successful nights. It is also better for the nurse or group mother or other person in immediate charge of the child to keep these charts, lest they fall into the hands of other children. The child should then mark up his record personally and come to the nurse or group mother to do so. This will also give the latter an opportunity to say a word of encouragement or counsel to him. In the use of the chart, it is advisable to propose to the child, not immediate perfection, but gradual improvement. In this way, his confidence in himself is better built up, and the occasional relapses that are almost inevitable while the habit is in process of cure will be less discouraging to him.

The foregoing summary of medical, physical and educational measures represents in the main the best institutional experience to date. These measures have brought about a large percentage of success. They have not ushered in Utopia. While most cases of enuresis are matters of simple habit that can be cured by fairly simple measures, a certain number of cases do not appear to yield to any kind of treatment. Some of the causes of enuresis are only dimly understood. Not infrequently, these causes are very complex and deep-seated, intimately tied up with physical or psychical conditions

and sometimes with autoerotic habits. Psychical factors in enuresis are receiving greater recognition than they did formerly. The fact suggests that more attention be given to these by members of the staff, and that, in more difficult and persistent cases at least, the services of the psychiatrist be resorted to. In the present state of our knowledge, failure on the part of institutions to get one hundred per cent of success should in no sense be ground for discouragement.

5. CLEANLINESS

Methods of insuring and teaching cleanliness are fairly uniform in our institutions. Consequently in the present section these methods may be treated with only occasional reference to procedure in particular institutions.

a. *Toilet Articles.* Each child has his own individual toilet articles as follows: towels (bath and face), washcloth, soap, comb and hair brush, tooth brush and tooth paste or tooth powder. Nail brushes and nail files are desirable; likewise tumblers for use when brushing the teeth. Towels and washcloths are changed frequently, weekly or oftener. Combs and brushes are cleaned frequently. Use of the common towel in lavatories, as of the drinking cup, is of course taboo.

As an extra precaution to make sure that no child uses toilet articles belonging to another child, most institutions mark, with the child's name, initials, or number, at least combs, hair brushes and tooth brushes. The use of name or initials is, where feasible, preferable to the use of numbers. With younger children, constant vigilance is in addition required to prevent them from using one another's toilet articles.

Toilet articles are kept in various ways, the chief concern being to provide proper ventilation or sunning and particularly to make sure that articles belonging to one child do not come into contact with articles belonging to another. Tooth brushes are rinsed after use and ordinarily hung up.

Devices for keeping toilet articles separate,—particularly towels, washcloths, combs, hair brushes and tooth brushes,—in order to avoid contact, with its consequent danger of contagion, differ somewhat from institution to institution. The more common custom is to hang the towels on rows of hooks, space being allowed between

the hooks to prevent contact. Some institutions prefer extended rods to hooks. Since the towel hangs flat across the rod, there is better ventilation and less danger of contact with other towels. Incidentally the towel may be less apt to wear out at a particular spot.

Often space is limited. But even where it is possible to allow ample space, children are apt to be a little careless and to allow towels to touch, especially when taking them off and putting them on the hooks or rods. This hazard has been guarded against in at least two institutions by the use of lockers instead of hooks.

Individual face towels are kept in metal lockers, two in a locker, are hung on opposite sides so they do not touch, and are marked with the child's number. (# 27)

All toilet articles such as bath towels and face towels are individual and are kept in metal walled open-face compartments,—of the size and style of ordinary lockers, with pegs and shelf, but without doors. These compartments, arranged in stacks like lockers, are in the dressing rooms adjoining the dormitories. Each boy has his own compartment, in which he hangs his towels, pajamas, and bathrobe, and in which he keeps his toilet articles and bedroom slippers. (# 66)

b. *Washing.* The following recommendations may be made as summing up current practice as to washing.

Hands, face, neck and ears: on rising and before retiring.

Hands and face: before meals.

Hands: after going to toilet.

Hair: washed bi-weekly, weekly, or oftener, and brushed on rising and before dinner and supper.

In some of our military camps, during the war-time flu epidemic, it was the experience that on removing all plugs from the basins in which the men washed, the flu decreased appreciably. It seems reasonable, too, to conclude that where many wash in the same basins with stoppers, contagion can more easily spread. Data were not obtained on this point during the present study. If the basin is unplugged, a type of faucet that gives continuous flow is of course required. The health advantages of the unplugged basin seem to be considerable, especially as regards contagion from respiratory and skin diseases. The practical question remains: Can the children be trained to care? This should not be impossible. At any rate, we

seem justified in recommending that the plan be given fair trial by actual experiment. The unplugged wash basin is used and preferred by one at least of the most successful non-Catholic institutions (# 320).

c. *Bathing.* Frequency in bathing differs from institution to institution, ranging between daily baths and weekly baths. In many institutions the children take a full bath daily; in others two or three times a week; in others weekly, but oftener in the summer time. Some distinction needs to be made between the cold shower and the bath with warm or lukewarm water and soap. The latter has greater cleansing efficiency, the former is more refreshing. A common plan, where showers are used, is to begin with fairly warm water, with the use of soap, and taper off to cold or fairly cold water. From the information gathered during the present study, the tendency in our institutions appears in the main to be quite decidedly towards giving up the tub and replacing it by the shower.

There is hot and cold water in every department of the institution. At one end of the building on the second floor, there is a shower room with seven showers, well arranged in individual compartments, with dressing rooms, curtained off. Showers are taken three times a week as routine, and oftener as the boys desire. (# 20)

Showers are used, with partitions between the individual showers, but without doors. The girls are partially covered with towels while bathing; the boys are not. There are dressing compartments in the shower room in which the children may dress and undress. Children bathe three times a week in winter and every day in summer. Many of the older children bathe every day all the year round. (# 27)

A very large room is set aside for shower baths. These are all in compartments, each compartment containing a shower and a dressing room. Partitions and floors are of terrazzo. All showers are so arranged that the proper temperature for bathing can be gauged and regulated by a single control lever. (# 31)

Regarding showers installed three years ago to replace the old tubs, the sister superior states: "The health of the children has improved. The showers are a time saver, and, so far as convenience is concerned, they are unsurpassed." (# 57)

All bath tubs except a few have been removed and have been replaced by showers. The superintendent states that before the tubs were removed there was a good deal of skin disease, but that since the showers have been put in there has been none. (# 63)

The saving of time and of drudgery as a result of the change from the older tub system to the present shower-room system in institution # 88 has been described earlier in the present chapter, p. 272. Experience there is corroborated by experience elsewhere, as illustrated in the following comment: "Shower baths by all means in a children's institution! Emptying tubs, washing them out after each child, and refilling are nerve-racking and time-killing tasks." (# 123)

The general experience of the institutions that have changed to the shower system points to the following three very important advantages of showers over tubs: first, time and drudgery are enormously saved; secondly, health is promoted and disease prevented; thirdly, cleanliness is better looked after, as daily or very frequent full baths are easily made possible for all the children.

The disadvantages seem to be negligible. The small children sometimes show a little fear at first of the showers, but the example of the other children soon turns fear into liking. In the institutions where showers are in general use, a few tubs are required for special cases, such as, very small children, infants, older children sometimes, illness, individual children bathing outside of group bathing periods, emergencies of one kind or another.

Where the general shower room is used, simple provision is made to meet the demands of modesty and privacy in dressing and undressing and in the bathing itself, particularly in the case of girls who have reached maturity. No iron rule can be laid down in a matter of the kind, and methods differ from institution to institution. We need merely to recall that modesty follows a middle way as far removed from prudery as it is from impropriety. Where the showers are in individual curtained compartments, privacy is well provided for. Where the showers are not so partitioned, individual dressing cubicles or partitioned compartments are often provided. A common plan is for children to undress in the dormitories, put on their bath robes (or towels or trunks) and slippers, go so attired to

the showers, and after the shower return to the dormitories either in their bathrobes or in their night clothes.

Children in our institutions are ordinarily taught well before the end of the pre-school period to look after most of their own needs as regards cleanliness. As regards bathing in particular, it is not possible to set a definite age at which small children should be expected to bathe themselves without any help. The following excerpts illustrate prevalent customs in different institutions.

At the age of eight (# 79) or nine (# 14), the children begin to bathe themselves without assistance, although they are still under some supervision.

It is felt that a boy should be able to bathe himself by the time he is seven years of age. (# 7)

d. *Care of Teeth.* Whether or not children will have good teeth will depend on three factors: attention by dentist and dental hygienist, cleanliness, and diet. The subject of dental attention is dealt with in the preceding chapter on Medical Care. Only a word may be added here to re-emphasize the importance of having dental examinations of the teeth of all the children twice a year and of carrying out adequate follow-up work. Of the two remaining factors, cleanliness and diet, the latter appears to be by far the more important. It is not true that "a clean tooth never decays". It is much nearer the truth to say that "a well-fed tooth does not decay".

Decay may occur, no matter how regularly and carefully the teeth are brushed. Regular and careful brushing does, however, help in some measure to reduce the amount of decay, particularly with certain children, such as those who have teeth of poor structure and low resistance. Moreover, the mouth being the doorway to the body, oral cleanliness is of value in keeping at bay infections of various kinds. Even if brushing had no effect upon dental and general health, it would be highly advisable from the standpoint of simple cleanliness and as a means of keeping the mouth free from offensive odors.

It is becoming increasingly clear, however, that the chief factor in the formation of good teeth and in the prevention of decay is diet. The foods that contain calcium, phosphorus, and vitamins A, C and D are, from the standpoint of dental health, the most important.

Such foods are particularly milk, eggs, meat, whole grain cereals, and vegetables, especially the green vegetables.

In the whole dental program of the institution, the dietitian probably plays as important a rôle as does the dentist. But this does not mean that brushing of the teeth should be scamped.

As regards brushing, different practices prevail. In some institutions, the children brush their teeth on rising and on retiring; in others, after meals as well. It is generally agreed that the teeth should be brushed at least once or twice a day; by all means before retiring; and in addition, either on rising or after meals.

Brushing should of course be thorough. Thorough brushing requires a minimum of about two minutes. A certain amount of coaching and training is usually necessary to get children to use their tooth brushes properly. For thorough brushing, the brush should be passed, not across the teeth horizontally, but up and down,—for the upper teeth, from the gums downward, and for the lower teeth, from the gums upward, with a slight rotating motion and with fairly firm pressure. The interior as well as the exterior surfaces should be brushed. The gums themselves should also be brushed well to stimulate circulation and to serve as massage.

e. *Nails*. Nails should be cleaned daily at least. If cleaned only once a day, this may well be done at the time of morning washing.

6. FRESH AIR, ACTIVE EXERCISE, AND SUNLIGHT

The health value of active exercise, fresh air and sunlight has been long recognized by us all. As regards, however, sunlight in particular, we have within recent years been put in possession of a great deal of new information that shows a little more precisely how and why sunlight contributes to health and healthy growth.

Sunlight is germicidal. It kills some kinds of disease germs, when they are exposed to it. It is one of the most important preventives of and remedies for rickets, a disease almost non-existent in tropical climates but widely prevalent among babies and older children in our northern temperate zone, and a disease very common among the children in our institutions. The body is dependent upon sunlight, as upon codliver oil and egg yolk, for the anti-rachitic vitamin D. Sunlight helps to increase the calcium, phosphorus and

iron content of the blood. It benefits general physical health in a number of other ways.

Direct sunlight in the open is best. The beneficent ultra-violet rays of sunlight do not appreciably penetrate ordinary window glass. Consequently exposure to sunlight that comes through windows or onto glass-enclosed porches has not the same value as has exposure out in the open. The experiments with newer types of glass which will transmit the ultra-violet rays along with the other rays are well worth following, even though results to date have not been as satisfactory as we should like. Nor do the ultra-violet rays penetrate clothing. Again, the rays of the sun are apparently richer in ultra-violet during the long days of late spring and early summer than during the short days of late fall and early winter.

So far as fresh air, active exercise and sunlight are concerned, these are supplied abundantly, if the children have plenty of active outdoor play and if there is good ventilation in dormitories, class rooms, indoor play rooms, dining rooms and chapel. During the winter months, however, on account of inclemency of the weather and shortage of ultra-violet rays in such sunshine as we get in our northern climate, children, whether in institutions or in their own homes, may easily come to lack sufficient fresh air, active exercise and sunlight, and so may suffer physically in many ways. Some of the lack as regards sunlight may be made up for by adequate use of the substitute providers of vitamin namely D, cod liver oil and egg yolk. The use too of artificial ultra-violet rays, *under medical direction*, may substitute for some of the beneficial effects of sunlight with particular children. Taking into account the conditions that commonly prevail in institutions, the most practical and successful measures for providing sufficient fresh air, exercise, and sunlight may be summed up as follows.

Make provision for as much *outdoor* recreation as possible. This is required particularly during the winter months. At times the weather may be so inclement that adequate provision of outdoor recreation is not possible. However, there is ordinarily no danger from cold weather, if the children are properly clothed. The same may be said of damp weather. "The mere fact that it is damp outside is not enough to justify older chil-

dren being kept indoors", if rubbers and other apparel for damp weather are available.

Provide good ventilation everywhere throughout the building, day and night.

Substitutes for sunlight, especially, cod liver oil and artificial sunlight, may be recommended, particularly during the winter months, when sufficient exposure to direct sunlight is not possible. The house physician should best advise as to use and administration of either substitute, particularly the second.

7. *Adolescence.* The coming of puberty raises certain problems of health in the case both of the boy and of the girl. The moral problem has been dealt with at some length in the chapter on Moral Training. We may here touch on two of its more important hygienic phases.

Both boys and girls, at all ages but at this age particularly, should be trained to cleanliness of the genitals.

As regards girls, at or shortly before the onset of adolescence, they should be instructed in the rudiments at least of menstrual cleanliness and hygiene. As regards hygiene, it is neither necessary nor advisable for the average girl during the menses, to avoid participating in ordinary exercise, or to avoid bathing. Allowance has to be made for variations between individuals. The chief counsels for the average girl during the menses are avoidance of violent exercise, of chills, and of bathing with water that is too cold or too hot.

A word may also be added as to the desirability of mature girls having as much privacy in their bathrooms and dormitories as is consistent with the equipment and resources of the institution. Some institutions, as referred to in a previous chapter, have found it possible to curtain off the beds of the older girls in the dormitories or to provide cubicles or smaller rooms for them.

Some institutions have found the use of a maturity chart so very valuable that a few details regarding it are here given.

The name and number of each matured girl is recorded on a chart which is kept by one of the sisters. The chart itself is

merely a sheet of paper ruled in vertical columns, for names, numbers, months, and year. At the time of the girl's need of assistance, she calls upon the sister, who records the day of the month opposite the girl's name and in the column of the current month. This very simple system serves as an excellent check on the girl's health, and has been the means of discovering minor and major health problems in a number of cases, as well as of frequently preventing serious consequences. Whenever necessary, the girls are referred without delay to the house physician who prescribes proper treatment. The plan has been found by experience of great help. (#81, #13, #67)

B. HEALTH TRAINING

I. THE PROBLEM

The health program of a child-caring home has three phases: medical care, physical care, and health training. Medical and physical care represents in the main what is done for or to the child by the institution. Health training represents in the main what the child learns to do for himself. A major objective of health education in an institution is so to train the child in desirable health habits that when he leaves the institution these habits will persist. Health training is, of course, important for all children. It is doubly so for the institutional child. So many things are done for the child in an institution that will not be done for him after he leaves. It is essential then that he acquire good health habits during his stay in the institution and that he acquire them, not mechanically or as mere routine, but from inner conviction and experience of their value and from incentives that will continue to operate after his departure from the institution.

Adequate treatment of the subject of health training would call for a long excursion into the field of technical pedagogy and would carry us far beyond the limits set for the present Manual. We shall, therefore, merely touch upon some of the methods that have been tried out and found more successful in our institutions. In the bibliography at the end of the chapter, references will be given to some of the more important and easily accessible sources on methods of health education.

Within the last quarter century there has been a major shift in

the field of health education, from emphasis upon information about health and the body, as typified in the older manuals of hygiene and physiology, to actual practice in health habits. The giving of information about health and the body is of course an integral part of any system of health education. But under the current system the emphasis is upon such information and facts and upon such incentives as are calculated to lead the children to acquire and faithfully to practice desirable health habits. As in the medical and physical phases of the health program, so in health-habit training, the institution has a distinct advantage as compared with the average home or school. For it has the child under its care for all the twenty-four hours of each day. That our institutions are capitalizing this advantage appears to be quite evident from the splendid health conditions that prevail on the average therein among the children.

2. HABITS

The chief desirable health habits for the child have been given incidentally through the pages of the present chapter. In order to bring such desirable habits a little more intimately and systematically before the child, a number of "health habit codes" have been proposed for and made use of in current health training. The code in perhaps most common use, "The Rules of the Game" compiled by the Child Health Organization and accepted by the American Child Health Association and by the U. S. Bureau of Education, is the following:

- A full bath more than once a week.
- Brushing the teeth at least once every day.
- Sleeping long hours with windows open.
- Drinking as much milk as possible, but no tea or coffee.
- Eating some vegetables or fruit every day.
- Drinking at least four glasses of water a day.
- Playing part of every day out of doors.
- A bowel movement every day.

It need hardly be emphasized that a list like this is merely a primer as it were of health habits. There are a number of other formulations. These are at present being studied critically and in detail by a Committee of the Advisory Education Group of the Met-

ropolitan Life Insurance Company. The results will be available before long. In any case, when using such formulations or codes, it has to be remembered that, although they are an excellent pedagogical device, they are neither infallible nor final. As regards, for instance, the fourth of the above rules, a better formulation would probably be: Drinking a quart of milk a day, but no tea or coffee, as regards the sixth: Drinking sufficient water each day. Nor are such codes all-inclusive. They merely hit the high points. One of their chief values is that they focus attention upon training in actual health habits rather than upon information about health.

For more detailed lists of the chief desirable health habits, see, for example, those suggested for the various grades from kindergarten to the sixth grade inclusive, in Spencer, *Health through the School Day*, 21-24.

3. METHODS

The following are some of the methods in more common use in our institutions, methods which are easily carried out and which have met with success. The short excerpts to be given may serve as samplings or illustrations.

a. *Health and Safety Instruction.* Such instruction is given in most institutions as part of the school curriculum; in others, through special talks, courses, movies, and so forth.

Hygiene is part of the school curriculum. Recently a graduate nurse from the City Health Department gave talks to the children on personal health and hygiene. These talks were later written up and discussed by the children in class. (# 14)

The children are well trained in the school room regarding food values and personal health. (# 30)

Hygiene is part of the regular school curriculum. Recently a movie on flies was gotten from the State Welfare Department and shown to the children. Each year a Red Cross course in Home Hygiene and Care of the Sick is given to all girls of the seventh and eighth grades during the last few weeks of the scholastic year. This course is not a part of the school curriculum, but is given in the evening as an extra-curricular activity. Diplomas are awarded the successful children. The course is usually taken by some of the sisters as well. (# 68)

Health education is a regular part of the school curriculum. (# 100)

From time to time the local Health Department sends a nurse who gives very instructive talks. (# 13)

b. *Health Week.* At least one institution has found it worth while to have a special week set aside each year for emphasis on health.

The education of the children begins during the two weeks of quarantine in the receiving department. Hygiene is taught in the school on the health-crusade plan. Each year in the fall there is a week's health drive. The fall is chosen because it is the period when colds and other children's diseases are beginning to be more common. The first year this health week was held, a poster contest was conducted among the children. The whole school took part in the contest, the children making the posters. The finished posters were hung up and covered the walls of the long hall on the first floor of the school building. The following year a health essay contest was substituted for the poster contest. More interest, however, was shown by the children in the poster contest than in the essay contest. (# 66)

c. *Growth Charts.* Such charts are in common use, more often in class rooms, but sometimes in groups or cottages. They have the value of stimulating the child to take all measures within his reach to attain and maintain his proper growth. Children are very much like Mr. Dooley: "When I put a nickel in the poor box I want to see a red light on the altar". Seeing their names on the chart as up to standard is an incentive to take means to maintain normal growth. In addition, the element of competition, either between the individual children or between classes, cottages, or groups, can be made to enter in and so serve as an added incentive to the children to make good. Too much emphasis should not, however, be put upon the charts, lest the child's interest in his own health be over-stimulated and lead to morbid anxiety.

The use of white, red, blue, silver, and gold stars or tags on the charts is found to add to the interest of the children and to stir them more effectively than when the plain chart is used. There are, too, a number of attractive and ingenious variants of or substitutes for the simple charts,—such as ladders, thermometers, races, and so forth,

—that appeal to the child's imagination and stimulate his ambition. Good illustrations of such substitutes and variants are abundant in the literature of health education. See, e.g., those given in Whitney, *Who's Who in Healthland* (School Health Studies, no. 3, U. S. Bureau of Education, 9-12).

In view of the more recent studies previously referred to (in the chapter on Medical Care, p. 250) of the significance of the 'standard' height-weight-age tables, it may be recommended that these be replaced by the 'Classroom Growth Record' obtainable from the American Child Health Association. With the use of this Growth Record or chart, all the pedagogical values of the older 'standard' height-weight-age chart can be preserved. The Growth Record has columns for recording the age, weight and height of each child for successive months, with special columns for gains in height and weight. It omits the 'standard' tables, and stresses the following point: *Watch individual trends*; it is more important to know that a child is *gaining* than that he or she weighs any particular amount at a certain time.

d. *Plays, Pageants, Free Dramatization.* These are in common use as devices for bringing home to the child the importance of health and of health habits. The play or pageant commonly calls for some expenditure of time and energy; free dramatization by the children calls for little or none, and has the additional value of being more of a self-activity.

Health plays and pageants have been used and found of value.
(# 64)

Health plays gotten up by the local Dairy Council have been given, the parts being taken by the children in the institution.
(# 68)

A list of references to suitable health plays is given in Miss Spencer's "Health through the School Day", 35-36; see also, *ibid.*, pp. 34-37, references on health stories, songs and poems. Similar lists and references, together with lists of films and slides than can be rented at nominal costs, can be obtained by writing to the American Child Health Association, 450 7th Ave., N. Y. C. Special attention may also be called to the same Association's splendid suggestions for May Day (National Child Health Day).

e. *Construction and other Activities.* These are of many kinds, such as drawing, painting, poster-making, scrapbook-making, paper cutting, clay modeling, sand-table work for the younger children, and so forth. Concrete practical suggestions regarding such construction activities, as also regarding health projects, games, and experiments, may be found in abundance in the readily available literature of health-education methods. The children's vegetable garden can be used to bring home some phases of health education, particularly regarding food values.

Health posters are used and have been found of great help in dealing with the children. (# 12)

Posters illustrating health are used a great deal, in the dispensary, in the classrooms, on the school bulletin board, and elsewhere. Those on the bulletin board in particular are changed every week. (# 66)

In the primary classes, pictures of vegetables are cut out and colored by the children and personified by drawing arms, legs and faces on them. The teacher uses these pictures as a basis for stories to the children on the value of vegetables. Hygiene is taught in all grades. (# 95)

Health posters, together with pictures of fruits and vegetables, are used in the school rooms. (# 100)

Both the sisters and the children make posters by mounting pictures cut from health and other magazines. The pictures are hung in the school rooms. New ones are made every month and replace those previously made. (# 71)

f. *Clubs.* In a number of the institutions the clubs formed among the boys and girls serve as a good medium of training in health habits and health information.

Health competition has been stimulated by the boys being members of the Boy Scouts and the girls of the Campfire Girls. Good points for honors are highly prized, and the children have received many. (# 71)

The children belong to the 4-H Club. 4-H Clubs have been organized throughout the state and undertake different activities, health activities being among these. The 4-H Clubs (head, health, heart, hand) are, as is well known, sponsored by

the U. S. Department of Agriculture. In this school, fifty girls from the fifth grade up, and all the boys from the fifth grade up, belong. (# 97)

4. TEACHER AND GROUP MOTHER

Proper health training can not, of course, be left wholly to the doctor and nurse within the institution, just as it can not in family homes. In the final analysis, the training of the child in good health habits depends more on coaching, encouragement, interest and enthusiasm for health on the part of group mothers and teachers than on any one other thing.

The children are splendidly trained in health habits. Much is done through school room teaching and training, but as much or more is done in a quiet but very efficient way by the group mothers, who are in fairly continuous contact with the children outside of class hours and who take occasion to talk to them a great deal and in detail on the matter of health and good health habits. (# 14)

There is a fixed tradition in the institution, a sort of understood rule, to explain the why's and wherefore's of the health habits that are insisted upon. The tradition is a long-established one and is an integral part of the system. Such encouragement and explanation are given currently and as occasion demands by the sisters themselves in the class rooms, in the dining rooms, on the playground, and elsewhere. (# 68)

The members of the staff of the institution cannot fairly be expected to be experts in health and hygiene. But, in addition to an interest in and enthusiasm for highest health standards among the children, staff members, like teachers, need a good grasp of the rudiments of hygiene and health. An outline of such knowledge as may be expected of the classroom teachers and of the other staff members may be found in the small twenty-three page pamphlet: *What Every Teacher Should Know about the Physical Condition of her Pupils*, by J. F. Rogers, Health Education no. 18, U. S. Bureau of Education, D. C., 1924.

While the routine initial physical examination and periodic re-examinations are, of course, the responsibility of the physician, daily inspection by classroom teacher or group mother may be recom-

mended as a valuable aid to the promotion both of good health conditions and of good health habits. Such inspection is routine daily in schools. For the institution, it may be suggested as routine by the group mother during summer and other holiday seasons. As a help in making this simple daily inspection may be recommended the pamphlet by Rogers referred to in the preceding paragraph, or the Manual of Health Supervision in Child Caring Homes (Cath. Charities of Archdioc. of New York, 1930), pp. 13-14.

REFERENCES

A number of references on specific topics have been given in the text of the chapter. In addition the following may be recommended.

Food. The excellent little pamphlet, *The right feeding of a well child*, by Sr. St. Joseph, St. Anthony's Orphanage, Toledo, combines scientific dietary principles with long experience in childcaring homes. A more extended treatment is: *Foods and nutrition*, by Mary E. Spencer. One of the best standard works, not too technical for general use, is: *Feeding the family*, by Mary Swartz Rose, rev. ed., 1924. See also Rose, Gray, and Foster, *The relation of diet to health and growth of children in institutions*. Among the extensive pamphlet literature, good introductions to the field are: *Food for young children*, by C. L. Hunt, rev. ed., 1922; *Diet for the school child*, by L. H. Gillett, rev. ed., 1922; *Milk*, by D. R. Mendenhall; *Every child's dietary for mothers and children*, by P. S. Shackelford. A standard study on milk is Crumbine and Tobey, *The most nearly perfect food*.

For suggested menus, see: Rose, Gray, and Foster, *loc. cit.*, 89-100; Spencer, *loc. cit.*; *Every child's dietary*, *loc. cit.*; *Program for Catholic childcaring homes*, 24-29.

Food dislikes and their treatment are well dealt with in: *Safeguarding children's nerves*, by J. J. Walsh and J. A. Foote, 86-91; *Habit training for children*, no. 1, (Nat. committee for mental hygiene), N. Y.; and the 3 excellent leaflets: *How to get children to eat vegetables, . . . cereals, . . . to drink milk*, (Infant welfare soc.), Minneapolis, Minn. A very suggestive critical review of the field is: *Cultivating the child's appetite*, by C. A. Aldrich.

Clothing, Sleep. See symposium on "Clothing in Catholic children's homes," in *Proc. 14th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1928, 445-49. Some practical suggestions on "Selection and care of clothing" are given in *Farmers' bull. 1089*, by L. I. Baldt, U. S. Dept. of agriculture, 1920, pp. 32. In L. M. Terman, *The hygiene of the school child*, ch. xx, there is a good summary, tho written some years ago, of the subject of sleep. See also: H. Wedgwood, *Sleep*, with methods of teaching good sleep habits; and U. S. Children's bureau folder, *Why sleep?*

Enuresis. About the most satisfactory short summary of the problem and of methods of dealing with it may be found in D. A. Thom's *Child management*, pp. 33-40; on psychic causes and on treatment, see H. T. Woolley, "Enuresis as a psychological problem," in *Mental hygiene*, Jan. 1926, x, 38-53. Some suggestions from recent institutional experience have been incorporated in the text of the present chapter from: L. W. Goldrich, *Hebrew sheltering guardian society*, 3rd ann. rpt., Child guidance dept., Pleasantville, N. Y., 1928, 12-13, mimeo.

Teeth, Sunlight. Two good pamphlets on care of the teeth are: J. F. Rogers, *Better teeth*; T. P. Hyatt, *Care of the teeth*; the former emphasizing diet and dental care, the latter emphasizing cleanliness. See also folder by P. R. Howe, *Your child's teeth*. A short popular treatment of the effects of sunlight may be found in: *Sunlight the health giver*, Metr. life insur. co. On ventilation, see: Wood and Hendriksen, *Ventilation and health*; C. E. A. Winslow, *The janitor and the school child*.

Pamphlets. Excellent series of pamphlets dealing with the various phases of physical care are published by: U. S. Children's bureau; U. S. Bureau of education; U. S. Dept. of agriculture (Bureau of home economics); Metropolitan life insurance co., and a great number of national and local agencies, public and private. These pamphlets are obtainable at a nominal cost, many of them gratis on request.

Health Training. Excellent outlines of problem, principles, and methods, with abundant suggestions regarding concrete devices and aids in health education may be found in Mary E. Spencer, *Health through the school day*; T. D. Wood, *Health education*. An abundance of splendid pamphlet literature on the various phases of health education is obtainable from: The National child health assoc., 450-7th ave., N. Y. C., and from the U. S. Dept. of education. Accounts of exceptionally successful school health programs may be found in: *A school health study of Newton, Mass.*; D. J. Kelly and E. F. Knowlton, *A practicable school health program*. A very good classified bibliography on sources, aids, etc., in health education may be found in: M. E. Spencer, *Health education bibliography for teachers' use*. For May Day (National child health day) material and suggestions on program, write to Amer. child health assoc., 450 7th ave., N. Y. C.

CHAPTER VII

RECREATION

The Problem. Idleness is a proverbial trouble-breeder. Children's play impulses demand an outlet. If these impulses be not released along wholesome lines, they will tend to be released along unwholesome lines. This is a matter of common experience both inside and outside of institutions. And the conclusions of common experience are borne out by a considerable mass of statistical and other objective evidence. Moreover where idleness and dawdling prevail, and where opportunity for plenty of active play is denied, the child's body and mind suffer as does his character.

Wholesome play, however, does not merely "keep the child out of mischief". It is a great building force in the child's life. The play of adults serves to make up for the wear and tear of daily work, to offset and ease the strain of responsibility, and to add something of adventure and thrill to the tasks of workaday life. Play does all this for the child too in greater or lesser measure, but it does much more. It helps the child to grow and develop in body and mind and character. It is a physical and psychical need of the child which must be met for his all-round development.

Active play builds up bodily health and increases the resistance to disease. It benefits vital organ and muscle as regards growth and function. It helps the child to acquire bodily control, nervous stability, grace of carriage, and ease of movement.

Most types of wholesome play help train the child to alertness of sense and intellect, to decision, initiative and resourcefulness, and to sharpness of wit. Where he plays as one of a group or team he has opportunity to learn responsibility, leadership, willing cooperation with his fellows, and forgetfulness of self for the good of all. Play helps keep the child in mental health; a child who does not enter wholeheartedly into play is very apt either to be "queer" and abnormal mentally or to become so.

Play is, moreover, surcharged with important possibilities in

the way of character training. It is a school of self-mastery. Competitive play or even the simpler imitative or random play of earlier years calls forth determination, courage, persistence, stick-at-it-ness, control of body by will. It expands the capacity for maximum effort, and puts to rout flabbiness, dawdling, infirmity of purpose and volitional mollicoddleism. Play is a school of obedience. In all games there are definite rules or laws which must be observed by the players and whose observance is driven home by fellow-players, captains and umpires. Play is a school of justice. Fair play, honesty, indignation at underhand methods and at cheating are integral elements of sportsmanship as they are of character. Most children have a keen appreciation of fair play and an intense sense of indignation at unfair play. Play is a school of charity. This is particularly the case in team games and athletics, in which the individual player must not only cooperate with the others on his team but must frequently subordinate his own interests to the welfare of the team. The word charity is here used in its broadest but truest sense as including all such desirable relationships to neighbor as are not defined by rigid and strict justice.

It is, of course, understood that only the right kind of play is a constructive force in character training. If undesirable standards prevail in the child's leisure-time activities, as they may and often do, then play insofar becomes a destructive force in training. The alternative good and bad possibilities of children's recreation suggest the importance of such measures being taken as will lead to high standards of sportsmanship upon the playground.

Transfer of Play Training. A still further question arises as to how far the mental or moral training that comes with play will pass over or transfer to other fields and activities in the child's life. Will, for instance, the child who has learned in play to be self-controlled in his attitude towards his playfellows and self-sacrificing in his attitude toward his team-mates tend automatically to be self-controlled and self-sacrificing in his non-play activities and in his relations to others when he is off the playground? Will the child who obeys to the letter the rules of the game and the rulings of the umpire tend automatically to obey the rules of the institution and the rulings of his superiors? Will fair play in baseball or football or marbles guarantee fair play in paying fares on a street car?

Our evidence on this difficult problem is none too clear. So far, however, as it goes, it would seem to justify a provisional conclusion that ordinarily such transfer of habit does not take place *automatically*, unless the play situation is practically identical with the non-play situation, and ordinarily such identity does not obtain. However, two points that have an intimate bearing on the question may be taken into account. First, play takes up a very large proportion of the time and activities of the child, a much larger proportion ordinarily that it does in the case of us adults. Consequently we accomplish a great deal if we succeed in our aim of having self-mastery, obedience, justice and charity prevail in the play activities of the child. Secondly, through the child's own conscious efforts and through tactful adult leadership and coaching, the good habits of the playground may be made the basis of one of the strongest appeals that can be made to the average child. A tentative technique for helping towards the transfer of play habits has been suggested as follows:

"The process [of *planned* transference] may be summarized along its three successive phases. The first phase is: Make sure that the desirable play trait exists. If it is absent, it obviously cannot be transferred. To train the boy and girl in such traits is an intricate task. Some of the key points are the following: Encourage not abstract virtues but concrete types of desirable conduct. In such encouragement, so far as it is given verbally, use the language of the playground without, however, "talking down". Keep close to the child in play, for only by so doing can you help him to play squarely, and even then the guidance must be given less by preaching or haranguing or threatening than by incidental suggestion, indirect hint, contagious example, and by an attitude that takes for granted or takes for expected that the code of sportsmanship will be lived up to by the players. So far as possible let the code be worked out, built up, and accepted spontaneously by the children themselves. If necessary to get direct action, buttonhole the juvenile leaders among the children, coach each one individually and apart, and make them your allies in the project. Make sure that the code be accepted for its own sake, for unchanging ideal motives, not out of personal regard for you. Tie it into the child's inner higher life-motives.

"The second phase consists in bringing to clear consciousness in the child's mind the desirable trait you are aiming to expand and transfer. That this has to be done tactfully, indirectly, and in play language is taken for granted. It would not usually help much to tell a boy he is practising the holy virtue of charity when he makes a sacrifice hit, but the same truth can be brought home explicitly to him in terms redolent of accepted codes and pleasurable experiences by getting him to realize that he is not the whole team and that the laws of the game require him to forget himself, to sink his own fortunes in the fortunes of his team, and to try no grandstand play that would help him to star at the expense of the team.

"The third phase is that of 'generalizing' the ideal already being lived up to and accepted and consciously realized as a definite part of the play or club code. The task of 'generalizing' is not easy. But something can be done, a good deal, in fact, if the adult leader is deft and resourceful enough. It is not impossible to drive home in play language and in a manner that insures a sympathetic hearing from the boy, that, for instance, courage in jumping into a cold river for a swim or making a hard tackle is of a stripe with courage in sticking to the truth regardless of consequences and in taking one's medicine even though a lie would open an easier way out. It can help to make clear that sulking in a game and sulking at home are twin brothers and both are equally at odds with the laws of the game".¹

As recreation holds so important a place in human life, and particularly in child life, it is little wonder that the Church has been so keenly interested in it these many centuries. Her Sunday and holy-day legislation which has guaranteed one day a week and many other days throughout the year to adult and child alike for a millenium and a half, has probably been the most important single contribution to play in the history of humanity. That it was her intention to set aside these days for play as well as for worship is manifest throughout her history, not only from her traditional approval of and blessing upon healthy recreation in general, but also from her consistent advocacy of wholesome play on Sundays and holydays. It is in this

¹ *Catholic Charities Review*, May, 1925, ix, 172.

sense that she has interpreted the saying of Christ: "The sabbath was made for man, not man for the sabbath". She has consistently held that Sundays and holydays are days set aside for playing as well as for praying.

So much for play in general and for the physical, mental and moral values of play in the child's life. These values accrue to the child in the institution in equal measure and in many respects in even greater measure. A word may be added on play as a particular problem in the institution.

Play in the Child-caring Home. There is necessarily a little more of restriction and routine in institutional life than there is in home life. A full play program goes very far to make up for this initial handicap under which the institution must operate. Three particular values therefore that play has for the institutional child may be summarized as follows.

First, the freedom and abandon of spontaneous play go far to offset the restrictions and regulations that are and must be imperative where large numbers are gathered together as in an institution, even in an institution operating on the cottage or group plan.

Secondly, it is a matter of common experience in institutions that if the child has a full and happy play life, order and discipline are much more easily and simply maintained, morale is kept high, school work and other duties are better performed, and content reigns.

Thirdly, in all walks and situations of life and at all stages, the duties and tasks of life wear upon people at times, physically, mentally, and morally. We all have a natural and justifiable craving for change, surprise, adventure, thrill, and kindred breaks in the serious demands of life. These elements may come into a man's life through his life tasks, if he has deep interest in his work and has learned the art of getting joy from it. This holds true for the child as well as for the adult. But ordinarily the elements of adventure and surprise and thrill are supplied the child by his play life. If the craving for them is blocked and denied an outlet, discontent, uneasiness, unruliness and misbehavior readily result. If, on the other hand, this craving be satisfied by wholesome and absorbing play, contentment and all that contentment involves for the child are present.

One final point may be suggested here by way of anticipation. It will be dealt with more fully later on in the chapter. Some adult play leadership for children is generally recognized as desirable, as is some measure of "organized" play. But both leadership and organization have a limit dictated by common sense and experience. They may easily go too far, particularly in an institution. It is of even more importance in an institution than it is on a public playground that leadership step warily lest it hurt childhood initiative and freedom and that organized play be built so far as possible upon the spontaneous play activities of the children themselves.

These general considerations and principles being premised, we may now proceed to the discussion of the play program in detail. The problem may be dealt with under three chief headings: the provision of play opportunities in the way of time, space, and equipment; the supplying of leadership; the choice of play activities.

A. TIME, SPACE, AND EQUIPMENT

It is commonly said that if you give a child the chance to play he will play just naturally. This is true enough. We have, however, to define a little more clearly what we mean by the "chance to play". It includes three things: time off for play, a place to play in, and things to play with.

I. TIME

The problem of time is not a minor one. During the school year particularly the allotment of sufficient time for play calls for definite and careful planning. The play question is during the school year largely or even principally a question of time. In the vacation period, the major problem would appear to be that of leadership.

On school days the amount of free time allowed the children ranges in our institutions from about two hours to five hours daily, the average allowance being between two and a half and three hours. It is agreed that the child should have sufficient free play. It is not, however possible to set down exact figures. Probably one may safely suggest for school days a minimum of two and a half hours a day and a preferable standard of three hours. Our institutions find it advisable to distribute this free time through the day. A common plan is to have two short play periods, one immediately preceding and one in the middle of the morning school session, with longer play

periods at noon, after the afternoon session, and after supper in the evening. A number of institutions (e.g., # 27, # 39) find the full two-hour lunch period on school days well worth while.

The two-hour midday period, between morning and afternoon school sessions, gives the child opportunity to eat slowly, to digest his food, and to play freely outdoors before returning to school for the afternoon session. He thus gets the benefit of the maximum noonday sunshine. (# 320)

The matter of maximum sunshine is deserving of particular consideration for the fall and winter months and for the less sunny sections of the country.

The foregoing schedule holds for school days and for the older children of school ages. Younger children of pre-school age or of the lower grades usually have a larger allowance of play on school days, while all the children, from the youngest to the oldest, have a much larger allowance of play time on Sundays, holidays, and holydays, and during the summer season. The longer play periods on Sundays, holydays, and holidays are particularly good for organized play and competitive athletics.

While children are in an institution, they have and should have their share of chores and duties to perform. On the other hand our institutional authorities generally agree and urgently emphasize that the greatest care needs to be taken *lest such chores and duties so encroach upon the free time of the child that hours for play fall below the minimum of two or three a day on school days*. They also call attention, and with equal emphasis and urgency, to the grave danger lest some of the children, *particularly the older and more capable and more willing children* be so burdened with duties and responsibilities that sufficient time is not allowed for relaxation of mind and for active bodily exercise. All work and no play does other things to Jack besides making him dull. If he be young he needs a great deal of play, but even if he be older he needs a generous measure of it.

2. SPACE

One of the many unfortunate by-products of the Industrial Revolution is urban congestion, with its partial or total elimination

of free space and vacant lots on which the children can play. The advent of the automobile has in addition taken from the city child his chief remaining play space, the open street. The rise and growth of the playground and park movement has done something to regain for the city child his lost play paradise. But even so, the child of the city still suffers as a victim of the Iron Man. The child in the institution is ordinarily, so far as play space and facilities are concerned, somewhat better off than the child living at home. Practically all of our institutions provide ample outdoor and indoor recreation space. The institution child has a place to play in.

a. *Outdoor Space.* A central feature of every institution is the outdoor playground. A number of institutions have play pavilions on or near the playground. Some institutions are equipped with a swimming or wading pool; a few in the north with a skating pond and toboggan slide.

(1) *Playground.* Every institution needs of course, its own playground, even where, as in one of the institutions studied (# 26), a public playground close by is used by the children. A distinction needs to be made between the playground and the general grounds of the institution. It is of the former that we are speaking in the present section.

(a) *Size.* Estimates of the amount of playground space needed per child in day schools,—and the needs are much the same in institutions,—range all the way from thirty square feet to two or three hundred square feet. The amount of space needed depends on many things, especially on the age of the children and on the games they play. For instance thirty to forty small children can play their ring games in a space of about six hundred square feet, that is, from fifteen to twenty square feet per child. The same number of children playing dodge ball will require about two thousand square feet, or from fifty to sixty-five square feet per child. Twenty children will require for playground ball nearly five thousand square feet, or two hundred and fifty square feet per child. Ten children playing basketball require about four thousand square feet, or four hundred square feet per child. For baseball the eighteen players will require more than a hundred thousand square feet, or nearly six thousand square feet per player (J. B. Nash, *Organization and administration of playgrounds and recreation*, p. 72). About the only prac-

tical rule that can be suggested is the general one: Provide as much space as will enable the given number of children, whether on teams or not, to play freely the games they like to play, and as will allow for such separation according to age and sex as safety and other considerations demand.

As regards play space, the institution located in a suburban or rural section ordinarily has an advantage over the institution located in the heart of a city, for the provision of sufficient play space is largely a matter of the money available. Rural and suburban institutions can usually afford a small farm and considerable acreage in fields and woodland. Thus opportunity is provided the children to learn to do many things that have great educative value. They can learn at first hand about plants, trees, birds, animals. They can sap trees, pick flowers, build little shacks, hold informal picnics, and so forth. They can gather eggs, bring vegetables from the garden, help pick fruits and berries,—activities which, when not carried too far, add zest and variety to the summer vacation particularly.

(b) *Division of Playground.* (i) *According to Age.* In a number of the institutions the younger and older children use in the main the same play space and appear to get along pretty well together. Most institutions however find it decidedly advantageous to have the smaller children's playground more or less separated from that of the older children. Some institutions prefer fencing for the playground of the children of pre-school age, as a protection.

The small boys are separate from the older boys on the playground and have their play space fenced in to keep the older boys out. It has been the experience that the younger children cannot enjoy full freedom of the playground if they share it with the older boys, because they are apt to get in the way of the older boys who play rougher games. The separation of the younger from the older boys permits fuller freedom for the younger boys, with their own ideas on play, and allows them to enjoy themselves without danger of being knocked over or injured by the older ones. (# 88)

(ii) *According to Sex.* Most institutions in which there are both boys and girls have found it better to provide separate playgrounds for the boys and for the girls. Such separation, however, does not obtain in all cases.

During leisure time the children play at will on their playgrounds, the boys on one side, the girls on the other. These grounds, however, are not separated by any walls, and the children are free to see one another, although they do not usually play together. (# 14)

There are two playgrounds, a smaller one for the girls and a larger one for the boys. The larger playground used to be used by both the girls and boys at all times, but is now used by them together only at recess times in the morning and in the afternoon. The superintendent is planning to equip a large playground for the girls as well. He feels that the girls should have a separate playground from the boys, not because any sex problem might arise, but because the girls are apt to get a little too rough and to lose a certain amount of reserve and refinement from playing too much with the boys. (# 27)

The playground is not rigidly divided for the sexes. The sisters have not found it necessary, as the boys naturally play to themselves and the girls to themselves. (# 49)

The playground covers a very large area on a hill a little distance from the institution. The girls play on one side of the ground and the boys on the other, although there is no rigid division. (# 52)

Boys and girls play together on swings, rings, seesaws, and in all places. Likewise all ages play together, from three up. In this cottage institution 87 of the 97 children three years of age or over are under thirteen years of age, and both sexes are represented in each cottage. (# 71)

(c) *Surface.* The type of surface needed depends largely on the type of games to be played on it. In some games such as tennis, basketball, or croquet, special surfacing is necessary to insure an accurate bounce or roll. Where an institution is under necessity of putting in special surfacing of this kind, it is better to consult local paving experts as conditions vary a great deal in different localities. We shall here deal only with the surfacing of the general play area. Such surfacing differs very much from institution to institution.

The play yard is entirely grass-covered. (# 37)

Out-of-door space is ample and a part of the playground is covered with grass and shaded by trees. (# 104)

Broad cement walks connect the various buildings of the institution, thus making roller skating, scooting, and cycling possible in practically all sorts of weather. The playground proper is covered with a fine slag surfacing which dries very rapidly after rain and which saves much floor scrubbing as no mud is trailed in. Moreover there is a minimum of dust in very dry weather. (# 66)

The greater part of the playground has a clay or grass surface, but a very wide margin around the buildings and a good-sized space between the buildings are surfaced with concrete. The concrete is dry enough to play on within a minute or two after a heavy rain. On the other hand the clay and grass surface is too muddy for use in rainy weather or during most of the winter and spring. Accidents on the concrete surface are uncommon. (# 68)

A large oblong space is surfaced with concrete for skating. The same surface is flooded in the winter time for ice skating. (# 70)

It is the view of the superintendent that no entirely satisfactory playground surface has yet been invented. The playground surface of the institution is a sandy loam. This dries very rapidly after wet weather, but in the summer and fall after long dry spells becomes hard and dusty. (# 72)

The outdoor play yard is surfaced with concrete. (# 83)

An ideal playground surface has not yet been discovered. Grass would be ideal if we could develop a grass hardy enough to withstand the daily tramping of hundreds of feet. It is the best surface practically where grounds are large and numbers small. Girls particular often prefer a sodded play space, and if large enough it will stay green. The grass surface will, however, usually not last on the older boys' playground, which gets the hardest usage. Cement is easily kept clean and so prevents mud-tracking. Moreover, it dries or drains rapidly, and provides a smooth surface for many sports such as skating, cycling, and so forth. It lacks resilience, however, and at times is apt to be a little hard both on the child and on his clothes as a result of falls. Coarse cinder and rough gravel surfaces dry readily, but sometimes cause ugly cuts and gashes to hands and knees. The fine slag surface used in one of the institu-

tions just cited is open somewhat to the same exception, but this particular institution at least has not had many accidents on account of it, and the surface dries with extraordinary rapidity, almost as rapidly as does cement.

A clay surface dries slowly and becomes muddy in wet weather unless very well drained. Sandy loam or a mixture of clay loam and cinders dries better. If a clay surface is used, its chief drawbacks, namely its stickiness in wet weather and slowness in drying, can be in large measure offset, and cheaply, by the use of a thin coating of rock dust and oil. Oiled surfaces unless covered with a coating of sand will soil clothes. Sandy loam dries rapidly after rain. Its tendency to become very dusty during long dry spells may be offset either by daily sprinkling or else by the application of calcium chloride. "This chemical is a natural dust-layer. The calcium chloride draws moisture from the air and in some instances from the soil itself. The use of it has passed beyond the experimental stage. It may be applied to the amount of two pounds to the square yard. One application of this amount early in the spring and a light application in midsummer will be sufficient. The cost of treatment is about four cents a square yard per year".¹

The foregoing paragraphs on surfacing may be summed up as follows. The chief requirements for the playground surface are safety, resiliency, quickness to drain and dry, and freedom from mud and dust. A one hundred per cent perfect playground surface has not yet been invented or discovered. Grass or turf is probably the best surface, all things considered. Where this is not feasible, the next best choice is probably sandy loam, especially if treated with calcium chloride. Fine slag and mixtures of clay and fine cinders have also much to recommend them. In all cases, it is advisable to have a part of the grounds or walks surfaced with cement to provide a dry, smooth, and hard surface for roller skating and kindred sports.

(d) *Drainage.* For proper drainage the playground needs to be slightly convex, draining towards the edges rather than towards a central catch-basin. Hilly ground drains easily and hillsides are good places on which to romp, but unfortunately they are adapted to very few children's sports and games. A playground needs to be level.

¹ Nash, I. c., p. 272.

(e) *Shade*. Sunlight is a good thing, but in hot summer weather, especially during the later morning and early afternoon hours, there is such a thing as too much of it. Most children, like adults, seek at such times the shade. There should be benches under the trees, else the children will sprawl on the ground, even when it is damp or dirty or both.

In addition to the playground with its equipment of swings and slides and so forth, the institution grounds are very attractively planted with trees and shrubbery, thus providing both shade and beauty. (# 63)

Besides the regular play yard alongside the school, there is another playground on an elevation shaded by a thick grove of trees. This playground has an area of about 200 x 200 ft. It is easily reached by a rustic bridge made of the branches of saplings and spanning a small creek and ravine. This shady playground is greatly enjoyed through the summer months. Here the small children play in the sand box, the older girls bring their books or sewing or enjoy quiet games, and picnics are frequently held. (# 64)

In addition to the large fields used for team games and to the play yard with its equipment, there is a large area which is shaded. (# 52)

Parts of the playgrounds are grass covered and protected by shade trees. (# 19)

At the institution's villa used during the summer months, there is a large stretch of woodland cleared of underbrush and bordering on the lake. Many kinds of playground equipment are scattered in among the trees. A great portion of the children's time is spent in this grove. The children may go here at any time during recreation periods. One group will be playing bridge, another playing with dolls, another in the swings, and others romping and playing their own games among the trees. There is, in addition to the shaded grove, a large playground in a natural sugarbowl formation, and also a baseball diamond used by the older girls in practice and in match games. (# 22)

The play yard has the usual equipment and is shaded by great evergreen trees. (# 87)

When it is too hot to play in the play yard, the sister takes the children to a nearby grove in a delightful spot with many trees. (# 81)

(f) *Beauty*. There is no reason why a playground should not be made a thing of beauty as well as a joy forever. A great number of our institutions have found it quite worthwhile to beautify the playgrounds and quite possible to do so without interfering in the least with freedom of play or encroaching upon the playground space. This can be done by having lawns, shade trees or flower beds on the borders of the playground. Flower beds need, of course, to be sufficiently distant from the parts of the playground that are used for the more active and strenuous games. In all cases, however, so far as the playground proper is concerned, while neatness and trimness are always desirable, the beautification of the playground should be so carried out as not to interfere with freedom of play. Delicate flowers that are easily injured by stray balls or by trampling are best planted on a part of the grounds at a safe distance from the playground proper.

(g) *Layout of Playground*. Ordinarily the playground space includes a larger play field for games like baseball and football and a smaller play yard for other games. The manner of marking off the ground into fields and courts will naturally depend on the kinds of games the children are playing. Outdoor gym apparatus, equipment, sand box, quoit courts, jumping pits, and so forth, are best placed around the edges of the play yard or play field rather than in the center thereof. The central spaces of the play yard or play field ought to be left as free as possible for games like baseball, indoor baseball, volley ball, and ring games. Courts should usually face north and south rather than east and west, in order to keep the sun out of the eyes of the players.

(h) *Woods and Grounds*. A good many of our institutions situated either well into the suburbs or else in or close to the open country have been fortunate in acquiring fairly large tracts of land, including extensive wooded areas. Such extensive wooded and open grounds have many and obvious values, a few of which are touched upon in the following excerpts.

Some distance from the house is a beautifully wooded ravine in which the children spend a good deal of their play time.

Here during the summer time they come for shade and have their frequent picnics. (# 25)

The institution grounds cover one hundred and eighty-eight acres. A large part of this area is heavily wooded, supplying opportunity for hikes, rambles, nature study, and boyish exploration. The land moreover is rolling and there are good hills for skiing and coasting. During recreation time the boys are free to wander at random over the whole grounds. No problems arise as a result of this freedom, not even the one of being late for meals. The boys appear to gauge the meal hour by a sort of "dead reckoning". The woods and fields moreover are an unfailing source of supply for miscellaneous collections ranging from flowers and leaves to polliwogs, frogs and snakes. The woods have also been used for building huts. Frequently, too, picnics and outdoor meals are held therein. (# 66)

The playground proper covers three acres, well surfaced, laid out and equipped. In addition to this play space there are twenty-five acres of meadow and woodland over which the boys are free to roam. (# 72)

(2) *Play Pavilions.* In hot or inclement weather, the children may need some protection when playing outdoors. A great many of our institutions have consequently provided outdoor play pavilions or play houses for the children and have found these of very great value.

On the playground is a large covered pavilion 100 x 100 feet, with a wooden floor, where the children play in all kinds of weather. It is equipped with a slide, six swings, two merry-go-rounds, one ocean wave, three bicycles and two tricycles and a generous supply of skates. (6)

There is a large covered pavilion with concrete base where the boys may play in inclement weather. They also use it for roller skating. (# 7)

On the shore of the lake, in the woods, is a pavilion about 150 x 200 feet. This pavilion is built over a concrete structure that is used as a boat house and that contains showers. (# 22)

In the rear of the playground is a large shade pavilion. At one side of the yard is also a play house about fifteen feet in height and large enough for several children to enter. (# 39)

In the play yard is a large play house which is enclosed in glass but which can be opened up. In summer time the children eat their dinner and supper in this house which is not far from the kitchen. (# 60)

A pavilion is built on the playground. Some of the children prefer to play here in the shade until late afternoon; some, however, do not seem to mind the sun and heat. (# 81)

The playground has a large pavilion that is used consistently and that affords protection both from rain and from extreme heat. (# 85)

There are two play houses of frame construction on the playground. These play houses are well equipped with toys, books, games, and so forth. (# 87)

In summer all of the play time is spent outdoors—in the yard during pleasant weather, and in the play house during wet weather. The play house is roofed and has windows for winter use and screens for summer time. The small children take their naps on canvas cots in this house all through the summer. (# 102)

That play pavilions are invaluable appears to be the unanimous conviction of our institutions that have them. The following comments by a sister of long and wide experience in the institutional field represent no exception to this general conviction. They do, however, suggest a hazard, but one that fortunately can be easily guarded against.

Pavilions in summer homes are of untold value for rainy days and for midday use on very hot sunny days. At other times the children prefer the open. In one summer home, an immense pavilion had been erected and elaborately fitted up and equipped, but the children showed a decided preference for sitting on the ground and under the trees in the orchard. Perhaps the pavilion savored too much of the indoor life from which the children were seeking a change. Sometimes the purpose of the pavilion is to preserve the good appearance of the grounds, and if the children are kept to the pavilion they feel the restraint upon their liberty. (# 201)

(3) *Swimming Pools.* There are few forms of indoor or outdoor play that have such a strong appeal for so large a number or that

confer such splendid physical benefits as swimming. A great many of our institutions arrange, particularly during the summer time, to give children a chance to swim at beaches or pools outside the institution. A number of institutions, however, have found it possible to have their own swimming pools. Some have hesitated to install or use the pools for fear of infection. The danger, however, of infection from swimming pools can be and has been reduced by relatively simple methods to a negligible minimum. So far as our experience with well conducted swimming pools in this country goes, it would appear that the real danger of infection is not so much in the pool itself as in the dressing rooms, especially from the indiscriminate use of towels and bathing apparel. So far as the present study is concerned, we have found no evidence that the use of swimming pools in the institutions that have them has led to any cases of infection.

The institution has an outdoor swimming pool. This is used by the girls and boys on different days. (# 10)

One of the greatest pleasures the children have in summer is swimming in a concrete pool built in the center of a sunken garden at one end of the grounds. The pool is so built that it can be filled or emptied without the slightest trouble. It is long and deep enough for swimming. It is kept in perfect sanitary condition. (# 33)

There is a large outdoor swimming pool. The boys and girls go in swimming every day during the summer, but not at the same time. The girls go one week in the morning and the next week in the afternoon, the boys alternating accordingly. The swimming pool is used for skating in the winter time. (# 67)

A new outdoor swimming pool 40 x 100 feet in area and graded in depth from two to nine feet has just been completed. The work has been done by the boys under the supervision of the contractor who is building the institution chapel, and who has given them his spare moments for this purpose. Fresh water is constantly entering the pool through an excellent arrangement for intake and outlet. (# 92)

Two outdoor swimming pools have recently been provided, a shallow one for the smaller children and a deeper one for the

older children. Both boys and girls use the swimming pools, but at different times. Swimming instruction is given twice weekly during the summer. (# 104)

Some of the institutions either have lakes on their property (# 22) or else have property bordering on a lake (# 84) and are able to provide their own swimming places. Still other institutions (# 27, # 52) have been in a position to acquire strips of beach for the exclusive use of their children.

At one of our country homes where we have water but no good beach or bottom, an artificial bottom has been laid some distance out from shore, and is marked off by a rope fence. At another home, where there is a good beach on a broad river, a shallow part of the water is assigned to the youngest children, another part to the middle group, and deep water is allowed to the oldest ones. Life ropes and life boat are provided and constant supervision exercised. (# 201)

Quite a number of institutions (e.g., # 11, # 20, # 25, # 27, # 32, # 55, # 68, # 88) permit the children to go out for bathing and swimming to local beaches, lakes, and indoor or outdoor swimming pools in parks or public high schools. Where institutions have not the funds to build and maintain their own swimming pool or the good fortune to have their own lake or bathing beach, it is in most localities quite possible to obtain bathing and swimming facilities or privileges for the children at one or other of the local public or private pools or swimming places.

In summer the boys go almost every day to the lake bathing beach about three quarters of a mile away. In winter they use the K. of C., Eagles', or Elks' tank. (# 72)

The building and upkeep of an indoor year-round swimming pool is usually too expensive for the institution pocketbook. If, however, funds are at all available, the results will repay the investment. An outdoor pool can, however, often be built and maintained at a relatively very low cost.

A supervisor should always be present when swimming pools are in use, to prevent accidents and overstay. That pool and appurtenances should be kept in the best sanitary condition goes without saying.

(4) *Wading Pools.* Where for financial or other reasons it is not feasible to have either an outdoor or an indoor swimming pool, it is often quite possible to have a wading or paddling pool. This, wherever installed, has proven one of the most popular attractions for warmer weather. An improvised wading pool can be made in the corner of nearly any playground by excavating a concave saucer-shaped hollow that will allow a depth of some four inches of water at the edge of the pool to twelve or sixteen inches in the center. A drain may be necessary. Many wading pools are made with a cement bottom. The wading pool can be built and maintained quite inexpensively and does not demand elaborate sanitary precautions.

One of the great joys of the children is the wading pool. This is located on the playground. It is constructed of blue and white tile. In the center is a circular equipment for providing a good spray. The pool is only about twelve inches deep and is usually about half or three-quarters full. The bottom is level and not graded. The edge of the pool is flat so that the child may, if he wishes, sit on the edge and just dangle his feet and legs in the water. Children put on their bathing suits and play here as long as they wish during hot summer days. (# 25)

A shallow wading pool with cross pipes running above it for showers is one of the most popular features of the playground. Firemen from a nearby station dug the pool, laid the pipes, mixed and set the concrete, and installed the showers, all in their spare time. The children go around in their bathing suits a great deal of the time during hot weather and often go into the pool and under the showers. (# 102)

(5) *Skating Ponds and Toboggan Slides.* Ice skating and tobogganing are a matter, of course, of latitude and climate. A number of the institutions in the north have made special arrangements to have their own skating ponds and toboggan slides for the winter months. The expense is negligible or zero. The values are obvious. A playground near a hydrant can be banked with snow or clay and flooded. Lights can be strung to allow after-supper skating.

In the winter time one section of the playground is flooded

and used for ice skating. A large open fire is kept burning alongside the pond to warm both bodies and imaginations. (# 66)

A large concrete space used for roller skating during the summer time is flooded and used for ice skating during the winter. (# 70)

In the winter time a toboggan slide is made. A skating pond is made by flooding one court of the rectangle formed by the institution buildings. This skating rink can be used in the evenings as it is lighted by electric lights which are permanent fixtures over the cloister doors that open into the court. These winter sports are enjoyed not only by the children but by the sisters as well. (# 71)

In the winter time a lake in a ravine near the institution freezes solid and is used as a skating pond. The sides of the ravine are used for coasting and skiing. (# 72)

A toboggan slide is built near the institution and is used a great deal throughout the winter during recreation hours. (# 100)

b. *Indoor Space.* If children are properly clothed and shod and are in normal health, playing outdoors in damp or slightly inclement weather will do them no harm. On the other hand the weather may be so inclement as to prevent outdoor play. Moreover, while it is well for children to spend at least fifty per cent and preferably a larger proportion of their free time out of doors, it is by no means imperative for them to be ever and always outside. They may prefer to read or to play quiet indoor games, especially in the evening after dark. Provision therefore of adequate indoor play space is an urgent recreational necessity. Indoor play spaces fall into three chief kinds; playrooms, club rooms, and gymnasiums.

(1) *Playrooms.* All the institutions studied provide indoor playrooms of one type or another. The following are a few illustrations.

The playroom is unusually large and is on the first floor and is well supplied with toys and games. (# 8)

The playroom of the pre-school age children is large, well lighted, and attractively decorated with colored charts, pic-

tures of children and verses of stories on each. The room is generously equipped with toys, kiddie-cars, balls, and so forth. (# 65)

A large playroom on the ground-floor level, with a door leading onto the grounds, is used by the children when the weather is rainy or too cold. Window-seat boxes are built along the walls which allow the children space for their toys and treasures. There is also an indoor playroom for children from three to seven years of age. This contains a piano, garden swing, toy boxes, dolls and doll buggies for the girls and rocking horses for the boys. A porch playground covered with gravel is also used. (# 81)

The girls' playroom is located on the first floor of the girls' building and is 110 x 50 ft. The boys' playroom is on the sub-floor level. It is about 90 x 50 ft. It opens into a hall which leads to the gymnasium. In both playrooms the floor is oiled to keep down the dust. (# 97)

The indoor playroom is well lighted with many windows and is attractively fitted up with curtains, pictures, and other decoration suited to small children. The room is equipped with a good supply of kiddie-cars, blocks, and toys, and with a toy horse and buggy big enough to hold a child or two. (# 102)

The chief requirements of the play-room are sufficient space, good light and ventilation, dustlessness, and attractiveness. Sometimes it becomes necessary to make use of basement rooms as playrooms. Necessity, of course, knows no law, but *if at all possible, the indoor playroom should be elsewhere than in the basement*, for in practically all cases it is very difficult to supply proper lighting and ventilation for basement playrooms, and frequently it is very difficult to make a room of the kind attractive. As a means of laying the dust, oiling may be resorted to. Care needs to be taken, however, lest the floor become too oily and slippery. The decorations of the playrooms are in accordance with the age and sex of the children who play therein. There is preferably a separate indoor playroom for each group of children.

(2) *Club Rooms.* It is not always easy to draw a sharp line between a playroom and a club room. By a club room in this case we mean a smaller room set aside for special groups within the in-

stitution, either organized groups or else older children. A billiard room is a source of unending joy for older boys.

The older boys have their own special club room equipped with a pool table and card tables. (# 27)

The older boys have a club room with a billiard table and with their own library. (# 104)

The Boy Scout troop has one small room for its own exclusive use. In this room they keep their uniforms and paraphernalia. They have access to the room at any time during recreation hours. They meet in it every Friday night and come to it frequently for between-meeting Scout activities. (# 68)

(3) *Gymnasium.* An indoor gymnasium may not perhaps be a rigid necessity in an institution, but it is very close at least to being one. There is a slight hazard lest the children spend too much time in the gym when they were better playing outdoors but such a tendency does not appear to be at all marked in the institutions that have gymnasiums, and, if it is noticed, it can easily be checked up by a little pressure brought to bear on the children to spend more time outdoors. There are some games like basketball which can, it is true, be played outdoors, but owing to seasonal climatic conditions, basketball is almost of necessity an indoor game. Were there no other justification for the gymnasium except the requirements for this most popular winter game, this alone would be sufficient justification. The gym however can be and is used for many other purposes such as gymnastic and setting-up exercises, dancing and folk dancing, games of many kinds, stunts, and so forth.

The gymnasium is on the ground floor, has a cement base, is well ventilated and well lighted. The base is covered with an oily dressing to keep down the dust. (# 11)

The gymnasium is on the second floor. The girls use it for their folk dances, for basketball, for drills, for gymnastic and setting-up exercises, etc. (# 18)

Under the children's dining room on the basement floor of the building is a large gym. The floor is marked off for basketball and other games. The room is constructed in pit form. Tiers of benches are arranged for spectators. A passageway

on one side leads to the dressing rooms. It is in the gym that the children have practice games and also their match games with parish, high school, and other outside teams from the city. (# 25)

The gymnasium occupies a separate building, is fully equipped, and is used at any time after school hours. It is second in appointment only to the State University gymnasium of the nearby city. (# 36)

The gymnasium occupies a separate building, the first floor of which is taken up with a large tile swimming pool with shower and locker provision. The second floor is used for basketball games, balcony seats being used for spectators. (# 52)

The gymnasium is a room 108 x 50 feet, connected by a hallway with the boys' play room. It has an excellent floor of hard wood waxed. There are three sets of baskets for basketball games. There are also three tiers of benches along both sides and collapsible chairs stacked in the rear. There is good natural light from the windows on both sides, and also electric light for night. *The gymnasium is also used as an auditorium.* There is a stage at one end with curtains and scenery and a movable moving-picture machine in the rear. (# 97)

A decade or so ago a gymnasium was looked upon as a place in which there should be a large amount of heavy apparatus and a generous supply of dumbbells, Indian clubs and wands. Gymnasiums may be and are still used for gymnastics and callisthenics, but their major use today is for team games, such as basketball and volley ball, and for many other kinds of active play, such as self-testing activities, game skills, games of lower organization, dancing and folk-dancing, setting-up exercises, and so forth. While the emphasis in the foregoing paragraphs may appear to be upon use of the gymnasium for team games and spectators, it is important to recall that a gymnasium used only for team games is being used for not more than one quarter of its potential value. The gymnasium is suitable for scores of other types of play that admirably develop body, mind and character for large numbers of children at a time.

Ordinarily it is not required that there be elaborate and expensive equipment in the gymnasium, as such equipment even where pro-

vided is not apt to be used so much. The major requirement for the gymnasium as it is used today is for ample open space, high ceiling, good natural and artificial lighting and proper ventilation. If the gymnasium is used for basketball, windows and lights require wire guards or screens to prevent breakage.

3. EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

By equipment we here mean such play structures, apparatus, courts and fields as are more or less permanent and immovable. By supplies we mean such things used in play as can be carried around and as are easily movable.

a. *Equipment.* (1) *Courts, Diamonds, and Fields.* The playground and play field are marked off into courts, diamonds and fields, in accordance with the games played by the children. Large fields or courts such as are required for baseball and football, are of course in the open. Smaller courts, such as those for quoits, croquet, horse shoes, and so forth, are better placed among the sides and close to shade trees where possible. Directions for laying out courts are easily available in a number of standard works (e.g., *Play areas, their design and equipment*, Playground and recreation association of America, Barnes, New York, 1928).

(2) *Sand Box.* A sand box or sand garden is a very inexpensive piece of equipment and furnishes unending amusement to the smaller children. The use of the sand box is extremely common in our institutions. It has been found very valuable. Two, three, or more boxes are desirable, if the population be at all large, or if there be more than one playground.

The sand pit is about 15 x 20 feet. It is used more by the younger boys; but even the older boys up to ten or twelve play in it sometimes. (# 66)

Among the most important and most popular adjuncts to the institution's well-equipped playground is the sand box, used particularly by the smaller children. (# 75)

The walls may be of concrete or wood. A very serviceable wall may be made of heavy planks from twelve to sixteen inches in breadth. *A shelf on top of the walls* is worth while, as it provides both a seat and a modeling table. The sand bin should be about one foot deep.

It is well to rake the box thoroughly every day, if it is used much. The sand box is best located in the shade but in such a manner that it receives sunlight at least part of the day. A location under a tree best combines comfort with sanitation.

(3) *Jumping Pit.* A sand pit for broad and high jumping is very easily constructed, takes up very little space if dug on the edge of the grounds, and furnishes opportunity for excellent exercise. The pit should be about four feet by about fifteen or twenty, and should be filled with about eight or ten inches of sand. It should be provided with a permanent take-off board. It can also be used for pole vaulting; pole and jumping standards are of course required.

(4) *Cinder Path.* Races of various kinds can be held on almost any level spot. Some of our institutions have constructed running tracks around the athletic field. The best surface for a running track is of cinders mixed with clay or loam in the proportion of about four to one, and well rolled.

(5) *Apparatus.* In the early days of the playground movement, a good deal more importance was attached to apparatus on the playground than is attached today. Some playgrounds have been spoiled by too much apparatus. Many playgrounds get along very well with a minimum of it. However, there are some types of playground apparatus that are not only very popular with the children but have distinct physical and other values. It is the general experience that games and sports have in the main higher recreational and educational values than play on apparatus. Nevertheless apparatus has certain values and the experience of our institutions, all of which are equipped with a certain amount of playground apparatus, is decidedly in favor of such apparatus.

In choosing the various kinds of playground apparatus several points have to be considered. What is the cost? Does the particular piece of apparatus easily get out of order? Is it durable? Is it safe or dangerous? Does it provide merely amusement or does it furnish as well a means of physical exercise and of neuro-muscular, emotional, intellectual and moral training? Has it lasting interest for the child, or does its popularity wear off? Last but not least, does it offer opportunities for initiative and for ingenuity in stunts?

(a) *Outdoor Gym.* Of the typical apparatus that has been transferred to the outdoor playground probably the horizontal bar is

the most valuable, at least for the boys. It can be used for chinning tests and for many stunts. A combination frame with trapeze, traveling rings, and ladders, and so forth, has some value and is used at least at times by the children. A climbing rope and climbing pole have a certain popularity too and may be used in the Athletic Badge tests. The Junglegym has much to recommend it, as outdoor gyms go, for children from about five to twelve years of age.

(b) *Swings*. The swing, to judge from the present study, has not lost any of its ancient popularity, particularly with the younger children, boys and girls, and, as frequently as not, with many of the older children too. Where children of different ages are using the swings it is well to have at least two sizes, lower ones not more than eight or ten feet high for the younger children and higher ones about twelve feet high for the older children. Most swing accidents occur from children on the ground being struck by the weight of the swing in motion. A simple precaution is to enclose the swing space with a low hedge or railing and to fasten lengths of rubber hose on the edges of the swing seat.

(c) *Slides*. The slide, too, to judge from all reports that have come in, maintains its popularity undimmed. Why the child gets such a kick out of gliding down an inclined plane, be it cellar door or balustrade or playground slide, is a mystery no psychologist has satisfactorily explained. But the fact remains. The slide, like the swing, is best made in two sizes, a low one for the smaller children, a higher one for the larger children. Pine and cedar slides are apt to splinter, and metal slides often rust. Maple or oak is preferable.

(d) *Seesaws*. The seesaw is a favorite piece of play apparatus on all our institution playgrounds. To insure greater safety it is well to use a longer seesaw mounted on a low standard rather than a short seesaw mounted on a high standard.

(e) *Miscellaneous Apparatus*. In recent years a great many types of more complicated apparatus have been put on the market and some of them have gained considerable popularity among the children. Nearly all of them are found in use in our institutions. Among these newer types of equipment are, for instance, the merry-go-round, the ocean wave, the giant stride, to mention only the more common ones. Generally speaking, measured in the light of the criteria listed above, these types of apparatus, while not without some

value, nevertheless could be easily dispensed with and with little loss on the average playground. One piece of simple but less common apparatus, that, however, does not seem to be in use in our institutions, is the balancing mast. It is merely a heavy beam supported on each end a foot or more above the ground. Walking on a narrow edge not only has an attraction for children but also gives practice in body balance without the danger to person and damage to property that attends walking on fence tops or barn rafters.

(6) *General*. The sand box, jumping pit, and outdoor gym apparatus should, as previously stated, be located on the edges of the playground rather than in a central position, so as to leave the central area free for games and sports. A number of institutions have arranged to place the apparatus and sand box under the trees or in a grove bordering on the open playground. This is an ideal arrangement, as it keeps the play area clear and at the same time provides welcome shade for the children. The outdoor playground, like the indoor playroom, needs to be supplied with a drinking fountain, and wash room and toilets should be situated conveniently to both.

The whole subject of playground apparatus is given authoritative treatment in the recent "Report of Committee on Standards in Playground Apparatus", in *Playground and Recreation*, Jan. 1930, XXIII, 631-34. All institutions interested are urged to send for a copy of this report.

b. *Supplies*. The exact kind of supplies needed will depend on the games played. The larger children need such things as balls, bats, gloves, skates, marbles, tops, ropes, jacks, and so forth. The younger children need their toys, dolls, blocks and such playthings. For the small children, building blocks made in about four sizes—4x4 cubes, 2x4x8 oblongs, triangular prisms, and pillars made by cutting oblongs in two—give material for absorbing construction play. A generous supply of soft balls and bean bags can always be put to good use. A great many of the institutions (e.g., # 26, # 68, # 72, # 81, # 97) arrange to have lockers for the children where they can keep their individual playthings and general junk.

Apropos of the question of supplies, it is well worth while to put at the disposal of the children a supply of waste or scrap material of which they can make things; for the boys, a scrap pile of packing boxes, odds and ends of used boards and lumber, and so forth, with

a few simple tools; for the girls, a waste basket containing paper, bits of cloth and fabric, cord, thread, needles, and so forth. Children often get much more fun out of "making things" from such scrap and waste material than out of elaborate playground equipment and supplies. This type of constructive activity absorbs them wholly, and gives wide range for initiative and resourcefulness.

c. *Home-made Equipment and Supplies.* A great proportion of both the equipment and supplies can be made by the children themselves, and it is much better that they do so where it is possible. Some of our institutions have found this plan quite feasible (e.g., # 22, # 30, # 92). There is good opportunity here for tying up class work in sewing and manual training with the play interest and with the sense of mutual helpfulness. By organizing the children themselves to keep the playground in order, the children will get a lot of good practical training in responsibility and team work. It is well, too, to get the boys to build such things as the sand pit and the running track, while the laying out of the indoor baseball and other courts and fields for sports and games may give a new interest to youngsters who are having or have had mensuration in class and wondered what good the whole thing was to anybody. Even in institutions that do not have manual training classes, there is often a "handy man" around or available from the outside who can help coach the children in making such things as jumping standards and hurdles. Detailed instructions on the making of home-made apparatus are readily available (e.g., Play areas, their design and equipment, Ch.X).

In view of the important principle involved, no apology need be made for giving in extenso the following excerpt written as a comment on the tentative draft of the present chapter.

Equipment and supplies, however crude, to the making and furnishing of which the child has in some way contributed, appear to give more joy than ready-made equipment and supplies placed at their disposal. In one of our country houses a power-run merry-go-round was installed. As time went on the engine would often cease working. The merry-go-round became deserted. One evening a group of girls found that if a number of them pushed the merry-go-round it would go pretty fast. From then on the deserted apparatus came again

into its own and with a popularity it had not previously enjoyed even in the days of its pristine beauty. Previously it had been "*the merry-go-round*" now it became "*our merry-go-round*".

There was a time when platforms for teachers' desks were a part of every school room. The day came when they were banished from juvenile halls of learning. In one of our institutions we placed the scrapped platforms on the playground for the children to play jacks and bounce ball. The children utilized these platforms in many ways, but not as we had anticipated. The platforms were turned upside down, with old broomsticks fastened in the corners as masts for sails while the occupants sailed in imagination down the river. The platforms were used for jumping games, the space between them being widened as the jump increased. The ready-made play apparatus which until then had been used, ceased to attract until these old platforms practically wore out.

Another instance. In one of our country homes the small girls were fond of playing house and had some really beautiful dolls. In a happy moment one child, about ten years old, created a wonderful black doll from old black stockings, with crinkly hair made by raveling the stockings. The doll took like wild fire. From youngest to oldest, every child who could wield a needle went into the doll-making business. The dolls themselves ranged anywhere from two inches to two feet in height. Then some of the older girls caught the fever, and created costumes that were really artistic. This mushroom industry occupied the free summer hours for a season. The days were all too short for the doll industry. So too, in the end, were the stockings. On the occasion of the annual picnic of the city parishes held at this particular country place, many people brought their children with them. These visiting youngsters first made a rush for the slides, swings and see-saws. But one of them in wandering around discovered one of the institution children playing with a home-made stocking doll. From then on the lion's share of the visitors' interest was in the home-made black dolls, not in the apparatus.

One last example. We have acquired a new summer place. The inadequate funds were consumed in purchase of the grounds, and little was left over for equipment. When I visited there, a basketball game was in progress. The goals

consisted of peach baskets with bottoms knocked out, and the supporting posts had been placed by the girls themselves with the help of a man of all work. The game lost none of its zest because of the crude equipment.

Equipment to the making of which the child himself has contributed will ever hold sway in the child's heart, the popularity thereof only wearing off as the article itself wears out. Abundant,—at times super-abundant,—ready-made equipment can easily deaden the imagination and creative impulses in the young. Not to the children of super-equipped institutions comes the intense pride and joy that fills the breast of the children who look upon the work of their own hands. The pride of an artist gleams in their eyes as their gaze rests on what to us may appear perhaps crude. (# 201)

In the course of the present study a great amount of material has been gathered regarding play equipment and supplies in institutions. Throughout this section of the chapter dealing with equipment and supplies, we have endeavored, for brevity's sake, to present a composite picture of experience in the institution, instead of giving longer or numerous excerpts from the reports.

B. LEADERSHIP

I. PREVALENT CONDITIONS

a. *Supervision: Keeping Order versus Leading.* In nearly all institutions a greater or less amount of supervision is exercised as regards the children during their play time, although in institutions here and there it has been found advisable to leave the children almost entirely to themselves during play time, and this without untoward results. Supervision may have the purpose merely of keeping order on the playground, or it may involve one type or another of play leadership proper. In the former case the children play entirely of their own initiative, the adult in charge of the playground merely seeing that reasonable order is kept, that the rights of all the children are protected, and that accidents or injuries are guarded against. Play leadership on the other hand involves some measure of coaching, teaching, organizing, or stimulating on the part of the adult in charge.

b. *Recreational Directors.* The custom of having some adult take charge of the recreation periods to keep order is an old established one and is pretty nearly universal in the institutions. An increasing number of institutions, however, have found it valuable to secure the services of trained recreational directors. Such directors fall into three major classes, although sharp lines between the three types cannot always be clearly drawn in particular cases. For convenience' sake we shall call them physical directors, play leaders, and coaches. By physical directors we here mean trained men or women who teach and lead in setting-up exercises, in gym activities, in drill, and similar things; by play leaders, those who teach ordinary games and sports, including usually folk dancing and a number of other activities; by coaches, those who train for team games and field sports.

An athletic director from the local playground league comes to the institution twice a week. On each of these days he gives one hour to the younger boys and one to the older ones. During the first fifteen minutes of the play period, the boys are taught drills. The remaining time is devoted to games and sports. The team games taught are baseball, soccer and dodge ball. The athletic director does the coaching therefor. (# 7)

Folk dancing has been taught by one of the sisters, a graduate of the Savage School. Another sister who has had courses in recreation at Hunter College also assists in the recreational program. (# 11)

The boys are taught gymnastic exercises by a paid instructor from the local school system. (# 20)

Two recreational leaders, one for the boys and one for the girls, are furnished by the city. They come once a week during the school year and every day in summer. (# 26)

The physical culture teacher, a Simmons graduate, comes to the institution twice a week during the school year and acts as playground director every day during the summer. She is furnished by the city, because *the institution playgrounds are used as well by children from the outside.* (# 27)

Four postulants who are taking special courses in recreational training are living at the institution and help as play leaders for the children. (# 38)

An outside physical director is employed. All team games are also under his supervision. (# 36)

Four physical directors from a local school of gymnastics come to the institution every week. These instructors are students in the school who volunteer their services in return for the experience they get. Two of them are young women who teach games to the boys and girls both in the class room and on the playground, and two are young men who take the boys for callisthenics and other exercises. These also supervise soccer, baseball, and basketball games. (# 52)

The institution has a physical director who trains the boys in gymnastics, games, and so forth. (# 62)

The institution has a playground director with his assistant, and also a physical director. The playground director devotes two evenings a week during the school year to coaching the football, basketball and baseball squads. During the summer season he is on duty from one o'clock every afternoon until eight at night and carries out a program very much like that on city playgrounds. His assistant lives on the premises and devotes about four hours each day to the boys, from about three in the afternoon until about seven or sometimes up to eight or nine. The physical director conducts two gymnastic classes every Friday evening. These classes include setting-up and posture exercises, and gymnastic activities such as tumbling, vaulting, buck and parallel bar exercises, with a little drill thrown in. (# 66)

The institution does not use a recreation leader in the winter but has one throughout the summer. The leader is furnished by the city. (# 67)

The recreational staff is as follows: a full-time paid woman recreation leader for the girls, who takes one group of girls at a time and endeavors to coach the group to be resourceful and to look after its own play activities; a male director who comes for one full day a week teaching games, folk dancing and so forth. The latter is both a physical director and play leader, but in his relations with the children it is play leadership that is emphasized. In addition, a young man living at the institution and acting as assistant to the prefect in charge of the boys, gives a good many hours each day to coaching the boys in their play and playing with them. A certain

amount of the folk dancing is also taught by the sisters themselves. Some of the older girls lead the younger children in ring and singing games and do the leading remarkably well. (# 68)

Games are taught by a professional leader. (# 71)

Recreational activities are under the direction of a paid professional worker who comes to the institution three times a week. (# 79)

Under the guidance of a full-time kindergartner, the small children learn songs and rhymes, hear and tell stories, dance, dramatize, make articles of paper or yarn, go out for walks or exploring tours about which they tell later, and go through the ordinary kindergarten program. (# 102)

The institution has a full-time play leader. (# 112)

About one-fifth of the institutions studied have one kind or another of professional recreational director. If we include under recreational direction the teaching of folk dancing, the proportion would be closer to one-third or one-half. Here and there we find a full-time director, either for the whole year, or else, as more commonly, during the summer season. In some cases the director's salary is paid by an outside agency, but more commonly it is paid by the institution itself. In a large number of the institutions the chaplain or some member or members of the staff who have had extensive professional playground or athletic experience or professional training in physical education, play leadership, or kindergarten methods, do splendid work among the children as recreational leaders. And many do splendid work without any previous professional experience or training at all.

The foregoing paragraphs sum up the actual situation as regards play leadership in the institutions studied. We may now proceed to outline briefly the chief problems of recreational leadership in child-caring homes.

2. PROBLEMS

a. *Opportunity versus Leadership.* Two main problems present themselves. The first may be formulated as follows: Which is more important, the provision of recreational leadership, or the provision of play opportunity, including adequate time, space, equipment

and supplies? It is the well-known experience of the public playgrounds that, once provision is made of sufficient time and space in which the children can play, the provision of good leadership is much more important than the provision of elaborate equipment and apparatus. As regards, however, child-caring homes, although there seems to be some difference of view on the part of our institutions, the more general feeling is that while the provision of adequate time, space, equipment and supplies is all important, nevertheless the provision of play leadership contributes very appreciably to the success of the play program of the children. Some of the grounds advanced for this view will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

b. *Professional versus Staff Leadership.* The second problem that presents itself may be put as follows: Which plan is better, play leadership by the regular staff of the institution or by some members thereof, or leadership by professional recreational directors coming in from the outside on a part-time or full-time schedule? Here too there is a certain amount of difference of view in our institutions. The more common trend however is towards a combination plan of professional and staff leadership, and, all things considered, this would seem to be the preferable system.

(1) *Advantages.* The chief advantages of good professional or staff play leadership over simple order-keeping on the playground may be summarized as follows:

Play types and play games are carried along from mother to child and from child to child for generations. Recently, however, in the United States, this tenacious play tradition has been badly broken into. Many of our traditional children's games have passed out of use, and even of memory, because the large spaces and open fields that they require are lacking in our congested city districts. The automobile has killed off a great number of our curb and street games. Our great immigrant population on the one hand has brought to this country no knowledge of American games and on the other has not transplanted to American soil its ancient homeland games. As a result of these and other factors, our children have fallen heirs to a greatly impoverished play tradition. Great numbers of children know few or no good games. A play leader can help re-

introduce the older games, can modify them to suit our congested play-space conditions, and can promote newer and better adapted games, such, for instance, as volley ball, dodge ball, and indoor baseball, to mention only three out of scores.

For one reason or another a great many children during play time may idle, dawdle, or loaf. A good play leader can stimulate the interest of the idle, encourage the shy and timid, and get the maximum number of children to participate in active exercise.

Some of the older traditional games of childhood and some of the newer games too—craps for example—have little value of any kind or else are positively undesirable. Then, too, some of the very best games have not been participated in by whole large groups of children. For instance, many older girls left to themselves never play team games, not because they are unfitted by nature for them, but because the team game has found scant recognition in the girls' play tradition. A play leader can introduce, where necessary, such games of higher constructive value, and so crowd out the valueless or undesirable types of play.

The aggressive children often lord it over the less aggressive ones, and the bully often rules the playground with a high hand. The shy and the timid are thus crowded to the wall. A skillful play leader helps bring about a fairer distribution of play opportunities and a better standard of justice on the playground.

Unfairness, cheating, and unsportsmanlike standards easily creep into play. A good play leader can do much to maintain high standards of fairness and sportsmanship in games. Moreover he or she can do much to see that such high standards carry over into other fields of life.

There are some special types of play that may call for a considerable amount of professional training, such, for instance, as kindergarten activities, folk dances, gymnastics, setting-up exercises, drills, pageants, and, to a certain extent, team games, track events, field days, and so forth. Many of our institutions have found professional leadership invaluable for these particular types of recreation.

(2) *Hazards*. On the other hand there are certain hazards: not if the leader be competent and tactful, but *if he or she be incompetent and unwise*. These hazards are the following:

Incompetent play leaders sometimes put on a program that is theoretically excellent but that does not seem to "take" because it is too remote from the spontaneous play activities of the children. There are many newly contrived or newly revived games that in themselves are splendid. Ideally they seem to combine the best values which we associate with play. But in practice they turn out to be remote from the actual play experience and play traditions of the children. The youngsters enter into them quite willingly while the recreational leader is present, but the moment he or she leaves they drop the game and resort to their own spontaneous games. In other words, frequently the leader's program that goes over to all outward appearances with no little enthusiasm carries over little or not at all into the periods of undirected play, and consequently fails of attaining the first of the five advantages listed on the preceding page.

Children in an institution are already of necessity under a good deal of regulation and routine as compared with the greater freedom of life in their own homes. Throughout most of the day they are under disciplinary regulations. Every institution recognizes the difficulty of safeguarding the freedom and spontaneity and initiative of its children, and in another chapter we have outlined the elaborate measures taken by our institutions to safeguard such freedom and spontaneity. One of the great outlets for spontaneity and initiative is the playground and the play period. If there be *unwise* play leadership, there is a possible danger lest the play of the children become overorganized and thus freedom, spontaneity, and initiative suffer loss. Such overorganization is, however, a hazard of the distant future rather than of the present in the overwhelming majority of our institutions.

To sum up. The advantages of competent and wise leadership are great, obvious, and unconditional. The hazards, though obvious, are conditional; they can be and are easily avoided if the leader uses common sense.

(3) *Recommendations.* (a) *Proportion of Free and Organized Play.* So far as proportion of time is concerned we may, in the light of our institutional experience, recommend that even where a full-time recreational director is employed, the children be left to themselves for free and unorganized play for a large part of their leisure time, at least a half of it, and preferably more. This recommendation is fulfilled automatically in practically all of our institutions, as only in an institution here and there is a full-time director employed, and even in such cases the full-time directors ordinarily deal only with one group of the children at a time.

(b) *Professional and Staff Leadership.* All things considered, our institutional experience appears to suggest strongly that a combination plan of professional and staff leadership gives the best results. The trained professional recreational leader is a decided asset. A good part of leadership should, however, be given by the regular staff.

(c) *Professional Leadership.* Whether or not the advantages of trained leadership be attained and the hazards avoided depends on the personality, competence, and tact of the leader himself or herself. Consequently we may urgently recommend that great care be taken in selecting the professional leader. It is not enough that the candidate have a diploma from a training school.

There is nothing very new about the idea of adult leadership and coaching of children's play activities. Children have always been so led and coached. The only difference is that formerly this was done by parents and relatives, whereas today, in consequence of our changed home and leisure-time conditions, some of this traditional leadership has been shifted to the shoulders of play leaders other than parents and relatives. What has taken place in the field of intellectual and vocational training is taking place in recreational training. Fathers and mothers often cannot or at least do not enter into their children's play either as participants or as leaders. This is unfortunate. But it is a fact with which we must reckon. The institution staff, who take the place of the children's parents, are in a position to do what the children's parents cannot or do not do. And this suggests a third major recommendation in the matter of play leadership.

(d) *Staff Leadership.* In the light of general experience and of the experience revealed in the present study, we may heartily recommend that members of the regular institution staff enter actively into the play activities of the children. Such active entrance may take three forms: interest, participation, leadership.

In all cases, it is easily possible for the staff to manifest their real and hearty interest in the children's play, over and above mere keeping of order on the playground. In a large number of our institutions, probably a considerable majority, the chaplain or sisters or brothers not only show keen interest in the children's play, but actively take part in it and lead.

This wise policy of at least active interest has many advantages, distinct from and in addition to the advantages accruing from professional outside leadership. It carries on the beneficent tradition of parental leadership. It helps the staff to know the children better, and so to guide them aright. It permits closer correlation between the moral lessons taught theoretically in class-room or chapel, and the actual practice of these lessons in life situations. It brings the members of the staff closer to the child and helps deepen sympathy, confidence and love. It helps the staff members to keep healthy and keep young in body and mind. Finally, it may be recalled that staff members are constantly under necessity of requiring children to do things the latter do not like to do. It is well that the staff take every opportunity to offset the hazard of being looked upon as taskmasters by helping the children to do the things the latter do like to do. The Father and Teacher of mankind in His wisdom has by setting aside one day a week for praying and playing linked together the duty of worship and the pleasures of play, and the Church has consistently done likewise.

It will be often found that one or more of the members of the regular staff of the institution have had professional training and experience in recreational leadership or else have had a considerable amount of personal experience in games and sports. Many of our sisters have had kindergarten training, which includes play leadership for younger children. In a very large number of institutions, some of the sisters themselves have had courses and practical experiences in playground work, in folk dancing, in handcrafts, and so forth. Many of the chaplains and brothers have had long athletic

experience, and many of the sisters have been active in sports in their earlier years. In most institutions consequently there is an already existing nucleus for play leadership on the part of the members of the staff.

If some of the members of the staff have had professional experience in play work, so much the better. They can not only undertake leadership themselves but can also give direction and training in leadership to the other members who have not had such professional training and experience. Even if there be no one on the staff who has had professional training, nevertheless it is quite feasible to start with the amateur recreational experience the members have had and to build upon this. The following suggestions may be offered towards utilizing and building upon such amateur experience.

Let us take a typical case, that of a staff member interested in the children's play, knowing its value and place in their education and anxious to inaugurate fuller play activities, but perhaps a little unfamiliar with the field and desiring information and coaching as to how to undertake practical leadership. What suggestions could be given that would be practical and effective? The following are made with all due reserve:

First, make out a list of the games and sports you already know, those of your childhood or adolescent days. Of some you will remember the names; of others you will remember perhaps the rules in only a hazy way; of still others you will have a very keen remembrance and will have kept much of your earlier skill at them. A little thought will bring home the fact that you have stored away in cobwebbed corners of memory, a good investment fund of play knowledge and experience. So much to start with.

Secondly, a little reference to the current literature of play will brush up many of your past memories that have accumulated a coating of dust in the passing years since you gave up the things of a child. We have an abundance of excellent books on games and sports which will refresh memory of the details of games known from childhood. Some selected works of the kind, such as Bancroft's, Johnson's or Smith's,—to mention only three of the more commonly used,—will be given in the bibliography at the end of the present chapter.

Thirdly, if you live in or near a town or city, you will almost certainly find therein one or more well-supervised municipal playgrounds. An occasional visit to them, plus a little observation and consultation with the director, will net you many practical hints and will put you in touch with many very valuable practical devices. Moreover, in most towns and cities it is comparatively easy to have an occasional conference at the institution or elsewhere with some of the men or women professionally engaged in playground work and kindred fields, who will always gladly share their counsel in the interests of the Sisters and of the youngsters under their charge.

Fourthly, in most communities there is a local playground association, membership in which brings you into personal touch with others interested in play and with the pooled play experience of the community. Many such local associations and playground groups conduct short courses in play technique which are open to members or others interested. These institutes may run a week to a month or more. They put at the disposal of those who take part in them a great amount of practical play knowledge and wisdom.

Fifthly, advantage can often be taken of excellent practical extension courses given by colleges and universities in physical education and recreation.

Sixthly, it may be possible, as actually is done in some at least of our institutions, for the sisters to receive a certain quota of play training from professional teachers who come to the institution for this as a main or secondary purpose.

The foregoing are only suggestions. Not all of them will be practical in every institution, but many or most of them will be practical in all institutions. The main thing is the will to enter into the children's play as participants or as leaders. Where there is the will, the way can always be found.

c. *Principles of Leadership.* In all types of play leadership, whether drawn from the outside or drawn from the institution staff itself, certain principles may be suggested as key rules or policies. The secondary principles are numerous. These latter may be found in easily accessible sources (cf. e.g., list quoted in Handbook for In-

stitutions, U. S. Children's Bureau, 96-97). The primary principles, particularly for play leadership in the child-caring home, are the following three:

1. So lead as both to preserve and to promote initiative on the part of the children themselves.
2. So lead that play activities and attitudes learned under leadership will carry over into the undirected leisure-time of the children.
3. Build on the spontaneous activities of the children.

This third principle in large measure includes the other two. Play leadership is sometimes ineffective because it "over-organizes" the children and tamps down instead of encouraging the children's own initiative. This means leadership to excess, a leadership that pulls and drives and represses. Again, it is rather commonly found that games taught on the playground do not carry over in any large measure to times or situations when the playground leader is absent. If, however, the spontaneous activities of children are consistently built upon, then initiative is preserved and encouraged and play teaching carries over into the hours of unorganized play. By spontaneous play activities we here mean such games and sports as the children of a given age and locality play or tend to play of their own accord and by their own traditions quite apart from adult suggestion, stimulation, or leadership. Some illustrations of the manner in which such spontaneous activities are built upon are given in the following excerpts:

Boys take part in the city-wide marble contest which is held every year. An elimination tournament is first held within the institution. This arouses much live interest among the boys and lasts through a good part of the marble-playing season. The winner of the elimination tournament represents the institution in the city-wide contest. (# 7)

The children have kite contests which take place in between the ice-hockey and marble-playing seasons. The kites are built by the boys under the supervision of the chaplain, who also serves as umpire. (# 38)

In the lull that occurs between the baseball and basketball seasons, there is a marble contest. (# 66)

There are tournaments of various kinds going on frequently. Early in the fall a kitty ball contest is held; later on, a horseshoe tournament; in the colder months, a checker tournament; in the spring time, a marble tournament. In preparation for the tournaments the boys vie with each other to get on the first and second teams. (# 95)

The foregoing are illustrations of the manner in which the already existing interest of the children in kites, marbles, horseshoe pitching and checkers is built upon to heighten interest and friendly rivalry therein. The same policy of building on spontaneous activities may be carried out in numberless other ways, such, e.g., as in airplane, soap-bubble or jackstone contests (cf. *Playground and Recreation*, June, 1929, pp. 155, 173-4), and is actually carried out in most institutions, whether for boys, or for girls, by the organization of field days for track sports and of leagues and tournaments for baseball, football, basket ball, volley ball, tennis, and so forth.

With the rise of the modern play and club movement an unending number of newly invented or newly revived games, sports, stunts, and so forth, have come into use on playgrounds and elsewhere. Many of them are very ingenious. A great number of them are interesting variations or adaptations of older games. When taught with deft and enthusiastic leadership, they arouse interest, stimulate wide participation, provide change, and serve to enrich the play knowledge of the children. Among these newer games and sports, an occasional one, such, for example, as dodge ball or volley ball, has carried over considerably from the periods of organized play to the periods of unorganized play. Most of these games, however, have not so carried over. The children, left to themselves, revert to their traditional "old-time" games,—the spontaneous activities of which we have been speaking.

In emphasizing the importance of building upon spontaneous activities, it is not for a moment implied that the newer playground and club games and sports have no value. They certainly have. Some of these values have just been mentioned, and there are many others. But institutional experience and conditions seem to point quite clearly towards the conclusion that the great bulk of adult play leadership, say from seventy-five to ninety per cent of it, should build upon the spontaneous activities. Some further expansion of this

principle will be given implicitly in the course of the third and final section of the present chapter.

C. CHOICE OF PLAY ACTIVITIES

Play activities are of almost infinite variety. They fall, however, into certain broad types. Some of the chief classifications are the following: indoor, outdoor; passive, quiet, active; individual, group, team; competitive, and non-competitive. The values of play activities are four-fold: physical, intellectual, emotional and moral.

The different types of play share these values in differing measures. Pitching pennies and shooting craps are all-absorbing pastimes for many boys and probably from this standpoint have some emotional value. But their physical value is practically nil, while from the moral standpoint their value is considerably below zero. Gymnastics and setting-up exercises are good for muscle-building and may be used to correct faulty posture. They are certainly better than no exercise at all. But ordinarily they have not the emotional interest that attaches to games and sports, and their contribution to growth of mind and will is relatively slight. Nor is drill much better than gymnastics. Given in small doses, it may convey a touch of orderliness and rhythm, but not much else. Some believe it has value in instilling obedience. Maybe. But it is highly questionable whether the custom of obedience learned in drill develops a true habit, or, even if so, whether the habit itself automatically influences in any appreciable measure other activities of life. Walking is a splendid physical exercise. Intellectual, emotional and moral values for the child may, however, be quite absent, unless interest is awakened by giving a very definite objective for the walk itself, or, as sometimes occurs, by the very simple device of calling the walk an exploration or a hike.

In the following pages of this chapter an endeavor will be made to evaluate the more common types of play in our institutions from the double standpoint of interest on the part of the children and of value in their physical, emotional, intellectual and moral training. Before proceeding to this evaluation it may be worth while to outline briefly some of the more general principles that govern choice of play activities.

I. GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Those types of games and of play activities are best that combine the *maximum values* with *maximum interest* for the *maximum number of children*. This broad proposition is obvious enough. In making choice of play activities with this end in view the following general principles need to be held in mind.

a. *Adaptation to Age*. The play of the young American child up to about his or her sixth or seventh year is largely individual. He is learning mastery over his own body. He runs, throws, jumps, swings, climbs, pulls, balances, and so forth. He may play with other children in groups, but he does not enter with spirit into competitive play. He tends towards free motor activity, towards play without set rules. And he delights in rhythm, in make-believe and in imitative play and dramatic impersonation.

After the sixth or seventh year, new play interests appear. With the increase in neuro-muscular control and skill comes an increased interest in pitting his own skill against that of other children. Play with set rules,—that is, games proper,—comes to the fore. The age of law and competition begins. But the competition itself is largely individual competition of child with child, rather than of group with group, even where group competition between “sides” takes place.

About the eleventh or twelfth year begins the stage of team play and team loyalties. Among boys the gang emerges, and among girls, the set,—at least among our American children. Athletic teams are one of the several forms to which these gang and set impulses give rise. The temporary loose “sides” of the previous period give place largely to more or less permanently organized teams. Ambition for individual athletic success and prestige expands so as to include ambition for the success and prestige of the team. Self-sacrifice for the group is born.

The above classifications should not, of course, be interpreted too rigidly. They represent broad lines of development rather than minutely accurate description. In how far too they are a matter of heredity or of environment and education is open to much question. For our American children this general development actually occurs, and, given the fact, we need to be guided by it. The

general principle, "Adapt play to the child's age", may be expressed more concretely in the two following sub-principles:

- (1) Build on the play tendency dominant at the given physiological and mental age period and do not force growth. Give the young child blocks and sand piles, balls and bean bags, carts and kiddie cars, and supply safe apparatus on which he can climb and swing and balance. Races and tests of skill at jumping and throwing may be encouraged more for boys or girls between seven and eleven or twelve, but the time is not yet ripe for organized team games like basketball. These latter will arouse deeper interest in the third period, from eleven or twelve years on.
- (2) Capitalize the character building forces in play. In individual play self-mastery is uppermost; in competitive games, fair play and obedience to law; in team games, the cooperative spirit and self-denial for the sake of the group. The boy or girl who has never taken part in competitive games or who has never played on a team has missed an important chance to practice obedience, justice, and self-sacrifice.

b. *Adaptation to Sex.* That athletic training is good for boys we take for granted. That athletics are good for the girl used to be questioned a few years ago but fortunately is questioned by few if any today. There is no reason on earth why girls should not take plenty of vigorous outdoor and indoor exercises. They have almost always done so in the past, except in occasional periods, such as the one from which we have just emerged, the period that bent the knee to feminine fainting spells, and that branded as unladylike any physical exercise more lusty than a leisurely stroll. They are as good for her as they are for the boy. A healthy and vigorous body is of value for her lifework and is demanded for future mothers of the race. On the other hand, we have to recall that God made the human race male and female and that in athletics as well as in other activities of life physiological and emotional differences have to be taken into account.

Types of play in which hunting and fighting are the keynote have little constructive value for the girl. Boxing is not a girls'

sport. Basketball is a splendid game for girls if played by girls' rules, not if played by boys' rules. Grueling track contests are inadvisable for girls. But most types of athletics are both suitable and valuable for them, and competitive team games have the same values for the girl that they have for the boy.

c. *Adaptation to Interest.* Walks and setting-up exercises are physically valuable, but most children are but mildly interested in and absorbed by such things. One of the primary values of play consists in lulling us into complete absorption and self-forgetfulness and in giving us the thrill that breaks monotony and stirs the emotions. It is important consequently to discover by actual experience what games have the maximum interest for any given group of children and to promote and encourage such games. The maintenance of maximum interest implies provision both for variety and change in types of recreation and for freedom of choice on the part of the children.

d. *Maximum Participation.* Every possible measure should be taken to bring about active participation in play activities by the maximum number of children. Some of the plans used for this purpose will be noted further on in the present chapter.

2. CHIEF PLAY TYPES

To treat adequately all the myriad games and sports and other play activities of our children would demand not a chapter, but a library. A number of very important types of recreation, such as reading, fine arts, handicrafts, nature study, and so forth, are dealt with at some length in the chapter on Education. In the following pages attention will be confined to certain selected types of play that are in more common use in our institutions and that present more definite institutional problems.

a. *Indoor and Outdoor Play.* It appears to be a fixed policy in our institutions to promote outdoor play as much as possible, either through encouragement given to the children to play outdoors during the free time or through definite regulations requiring them to be outdoors during leisure hours. Some institutions (e.g., # 14) require the children to play outdoors whenever the weather permits. Other institutions (e.g., # 25, # 71, # 97) leave the children quite free to play indoors or outdoors as they choose; but even in such

cases the children as a rule actually spend most of their time outside. Some institutions follow a compromise policy.

The children are left quite free during their leisure time to play indoors or outdoors, but they are encouraged to play outdoors. (# 27 and # 64)

The children are free to play inside or out, whichever they prefer, but if an individual child is noticed spending too much of his free time indoors, he is "jogged along" a little. (# 68)

The emphasis is put upon outdoor play, especially during the school year when children must be in classrooms most of their time. During the school year they must play out of doors when the weather permits. In summer time they are free to remain indoors part of the time if they wish. (# 88)

The older children have more liberty to play indoors or outdoors as they prefer. (# 112)

Conditions of course differ from institution to institution, but, generally speaking, some form of compromise policy seems to meet best the needs of the children. From the physical standpoint at least, outdoor play is far better than indoor play. No playroom or gymnasium, however spacious and however elaborately equipped, can take the place of God's outdoors. Not only is there ordinarily less freedom and abandon indoors, but the lack of fresh air and of sunshine is a distinct disadvantage. It is hard, too, to keep down the dust in indoor playrooms, if they are used for active play.

On the other hand even robust and energetic children at times prefer remaining indoors to read or to play quiet games, or they may not be in the humor for outdoor play, or their physical condition may be such that indoor play is both preferred by them and better for them at the time. Ordinarily it is only the exceptional child of the shut-in, retiring or bookworm type that needs to be stirred to more outdoor exercise. When left free nearly all of the children will of their own volition live up to the reasonable ideal of spending at least from one half to two thirds of their leisure time out of doors.

b. *Passive Recreation.* By passive recreation is meant recreation in which the children themselves are mere listeners or observers. The more common types are listening to stories or music and attending movies, theaters, exhibits, athletic contests and so forth.

(1) *Story Telling.* Bed-time stories are popular in some of the institutions for the very small children. For the children of slightly older years reading a book to them for a while in the evening or toward bedtime by the sister in charge of the group replaces the bed-time story in some places. Story telling is popular even with older children of teen age, if the telling is done around an open hearth or around a camp-fire built outdoors. All these types of evening story telling not only stimulate the imagination and hold interest but also serve to quiet down the children before retiring. The stories ought not to be such as arouse fears and terrors or lead to disturbing dreams. One at least of the institutions (# 66) has the splendid custom of making an outdoor campfire at night from time to time and having the usual campfire accompaniments of story telling, marshmallow toasting and so forth.

We have good results from evening story-telling, especially when the children cannot go outdoors. (# 124)

(2) *Radios, Victrolas and Player Pianos.* A great many of the institutions (e.g., # 44, # 50, # 55, # 66, # 72, # 81, # 112) are equipped with radios or victrolas or player pianos, or in some cases, with all three. The children usually get great enjoyment out of them, and incidentally a good deal of unconscious musical education. The radio is eagerly listened to on occasions such as the world-series games and other outstanding sporting or public events. Incidentally, too, the radio helps to keep up contact of the child in the institution with the larger world outside thereof, and so tends to offset the hazard of institutional isolation.

Victrolas, pianos, and radios share popularity in the recreation halls. Children dislike monotony, and turn from the one to the other. (# 201)

(3) *Motion Pictures.* About a fourth of the institutions studied provide motion pictures for the children within the institution. Frequency of showings ranges from twice a week to once every two weeks. By far the most common frequency (e.g., # 18, # 22, # 31, # 34, # 35, # 80, # 68, # 79, # 81, # 97, # 104, # 112) is once a week throughout the year, or at least throughout the school year.

More commonly the films are furnished free to the institution,

although in some cases the institution pays for their use. In some institutions an operator is gotten from the outside; in others one of the staff is a licensed operator. In the construction of the projection booth and in the operation of the machine, local fire regulations must of course be observed.

The commercial substitution of sound pictures for silent films is rapidly making necessary the proper wiring and equipment of institutional auditoriums for presenting "talkies." (For free counsel on best and least expensive equipment, write to I. F. C. A., Motion Picture Bureau, at address given infra).

Many institutions have not the equipment and facilities for showing films within their own walls, or else prefer the plan of allowing the children to go outside to the regular movie theaters. In most institutions, too, that have their own shows, the children are also permitted to go outside to see special films.

Motion pictures are shown in the institution very frequently during the winter months. The boys are also permitted to go to movies on the outside at the discretion of the sisters, whenever specially interesting or instructive pictures are being shown. (# 20)

The children attend the movies on the outside at least twice a month, going in twos or in small groups. (# 55)

The institution has its own motion-picture machine and used formerly to get films from the theaters in the city. The children, however, now go out to the movies every Saturday afternoon. If they have not the money to go and there is some special film being shown, the sister has a small fund from which she provides the money for children who have none. The children seem to prefer going out to the movies, and consequently the superintendent has not attempted recently to procure films for inside showing. (# 27)

Films are shown within the institution a couple of times a week. The children also go out to see special films. (# 42)

It is well recognized that some pictures are not suitable for children. Some are not suitable for grown-ups. But quite apart from the last type, there are a number of films which are quite suitable for mature audiences but which are over the heads of immature children

or else are not adapted to children's tastes and interests. Some method of selecting the films before they are shown in the institution is therefore highly desirable. The following are two of the methods in use.

The proprietor of a motion-picture house in the neighborhood invites the children to attend whenever he has a show that he feels is suitable for the children. The proprietor is a man of very high standards and the institution authorities have learned from experience that they can have full confidence in his judgment and selection. (# 88)

There is a preliminary private showing of the film before it is shown to the children. If the director of the institution finds any sections of the film unsuitable, these sections are omitted by the operator when the film is publicly shown. (# 95)

Two other methods of selection may be suggested, although they have not been found in use during the present study. These methods might not be feasible in all institutions but they probably are so in a great many. First, it should be possible in many cases to secure the assistance of a friend of the institution, an adult with good judgment and common sense, who would make it a point to see beforehand such films as are to be exhibited to the children in the institution or in movie houses outside thereof. Secondly, guidance may be sought from the critical lists of new motion pictures, that are published on a non-commercial basis.

Such lists, with special annotations on the suitability or unsuitability of each film for children, are published monthly in: *The Parents' Magazine*, and *Child Welfare*.

In addition to these lists, two others are available, both of them excellent, and both reflecting the highest critical and moral standards. Both of them, too, will be gladly sent gratis, their sponsors inform the Conference, to institutions that desire to receive them regularly. Institutions are urgently recommended by the Conference to avail themselves of this splendid service. All the institutions need do is to send a letter of request to the respective chairmen in charge, whose addresses are given below, and the institution will gladly be put on the mailing list to receive the lists regularly, that is, monthly or oftener.

Following are the essential data regarding these two lists:

Council of Catholic Women lists. Issued in mimeo monthly or oftener, and comprising: (a) A tabular summary, giving for each film the title, producer, type of picture (drama, comedy, etc.), suitability or unsuitability for children under 12 years; (b) fuller analysis, giving for each film the title, producer, director, cast, short summary or plot, and short critique with special attention to suitability for children, and reasons why considered suitable or unsuitable. All new films are previewed by a selected committee. Address: Mrs. E. H. Jacobs, Council of Catholic Women, Member C. F. W. C. review committee, 1804 Westmoreland Blvd., Los Angeles, California.

International Federation of Catholic Alumnae lists. Issued in printed form monthly, and comprising: a full analysis, giving for each film the title, producer, stars, type of picture, short summary of plot, and short critique with special attention to and annotation on suitability for children. New films are previewed by two committees, in New York and Hollywood. In addition, full synopsis of any film is sent on request. Above analysis is broadcast regularly from several radio stations. Address: Mrs. Thomas A. McGoldrick, LL.D., Chairman, Motion Picture Bureau, International Federation of Catholic Alumnae, 294 Clinton Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.

(4) *Theaters.* A great many of the institutions, probably the majority, permit the children to attend plays, pageants, and other entertainments outside the institution walls, given in commercially conducted theaters, in parish halls, or elsewhere. This custom is an excellent one as it increases the outside contacts of the children in addition to providing them with both recreation and instruction. Some of the institutions also permit the children to attend athletic events, such as high school and college football games or professional baseball games. All things considered, it is certainly better to play a game than to watch it from the grandstand or bleachers. But there is no harm and much good in occasional attendance on the part of the children at such athletic events.

(5) *Exhibits.* Aeroplane exhibits, flower shows, dog shows, auto shows, and scores of other similar exhibits are held annually in

our towns and cities, and independently or in connection with county fairs or other events, often in rural sections. It is nearly always possible to obtain free admission for institution children to these events, which provide change, novelty, pleasure and information for the children, and also increase their community contacts.

c. *Quiet Play*. It is a matter of common experience that institutional children, like other children, enjoy a certain amount of quiet play. Such play has not the physical values of active play, but, generally speaking, it has many intellectual, emotional and moral values. It is well if there be an alternation of quiet with active play. This is advisable particularly during the summer time, but, even during the school year, a good proportion of quiet play, especially after dark or during very inclement weather, is quite in order. An occasional child of the shy, listless, or bookworm type may have to be encouraged to enter more into strenuous games. The average child, however, even of the vigorous type, likes a change at times from more active to quieter play.

(1) *Reading*. A number of recreational surveys that have been made in various parts of the country appear to show that the average child of school age, boy or girl, spends about one hour a day in leisure-time reading. Some of course spend much more, while some do almost no reading at all. But for the average child, reading is one of the most popular types of recreation. It need hardly be added that the taste for reading should be encouraged in every way. Most of our institutions provide an ample selection of books and periodicals suited to children's interests and intelligence. The subject of reading is only touched upon here; it will be dealt with in fuller detail under the section on Reading and Library in the chapter on Education.

(2) *Quiet Indoor Games*. Judging from the present study the older quiet indoor games still hold the greatest interest for the children. Both for the boys and the girls the more popular games are cards, checkers and dominoes, with traveling, guessing, and table games ranking next in popularity. For the younger girls, dolls and jacks have precedence; for still younger children, the sand box, blocks and toys seem to be the most popular. In some at least of the institutions old-fashioned amusements like bobbing for apples (# 72) and corn popping (# 71) appear to have lost none of their traditional popularity.

Two interesting suggestions are contained in the following excerpts.

The boys play some of the regulation card games, but they have also improvised their own card games and these are the most popular. (# 7)

The playrooms are supplied with a great variety of table games, spinning games, and so forth. Nearly every new game that comes out is gotten for the boys. From time to time, especially when a new game is brought in, the superintendent gathers up a lot of the old material, so that the boys will forget all about it for a time. After the novelty of the new game begins to wear off, the old games are again brought out. (# 72)

For older boys pool and billiards are found to have a lasting interest. A few of the institutions (e.g., # 14, # 72, # 97, # 104) have a pool or billiard table which is much patronized by older boys, from twelve up, and particularly from fourteen or fifteen up.

(3) *Construction Activities.* Most boys like to tinker with tools and to "make things". Girls are more apt to take to one or other of the basketry or needlework arts. If there is someone to teach the boys and girls the more technical handicrafts, so much the better. Quite apart however from professional or semi-professional teaching, children, if provided with simple tools and material, will often become completely absorbed in construction activities and will derive much pleasure and profit therefrom.

Some of our institutions have found it worth while to give the children instruction in some of the handicrafts as part either of the recreational or of the educational program. Handicrafts and kindred activities like puppet shows are dealt with in the chapter on Education. In other institutions good results have been gotten merely by letting the children develop native skill without being definitely taught or coached. The latter plan promotes spontaneity and initiative, even though the finished products of the children's skill be not masterpieces.

The boys often build treasure houses on the grounds. These houses are made of sod and dirt taken from a ploughed field. Sometimes they make "log cabins" of material from old torn-down fences. One log cabin which they built some

months ago was two stories high. Only the specially privileged were permitted to go on the second floor. The boys who built the house held the key to it. The boys often make houses and furniture with mud. They have done these things quite of their own initiative, without any adult coaching or leadership. (# 7)

Under the trees, adjacent to the baseball diamond, the boys have built themselves individual treasure houses. (# 54)

The girls at the summer villa mark off in the grove their own particular spots with pebbles gathered along the shore of the lake. Each of the smaller girls builds a doll house on her own particular spot. The houses as well as the chairs and beds and other equipment thereof are made out of boxes, twigs, and so forth. Each child has her own ideas on how to make these things and is left to follow out such ideas to her heart's content. (# 22)

(4) *Pets.* Pets may be either community pets belonging to the institution or to the whole body of children, or else individual pets belonging to particular children. Either community or individual pets are very generally found in our institutions. The more common community pets are dogs, cats, kittens, canaries, and gold fish. Some of the less common types of community pets and some of the plans for individual pet-keeping are illustrated in the following excerpts.

The children have, in addition to several dogs and cats, a tame coyote as a pet. (# 97, an Indian school)

The community pets are a dog, a cat, and a parrot. In addition, on the playground there is a large octagonal bird-house, housing from thirty-five to forty canaries. The children are very fond of the birds, and the youngsters of the intermediate group are given the responsibility of seeing that the birds are properly fed. (# 79)

There is a white bird-house which interests the very small children greatly. They take delight in watching the birds. (# 81)

There are individual pets such as rabbits, pigeons, cats, and dogs. At times the institution has quite a menagerie of such pets owned by individual children. At other times there are

no pets, except the common pets of all, the house dog and a number of cats. (# 27)

There is one big dog that is the pet of everybody. No problem of teasing by the children or of snapping by the dog has ever arisen. Two ponies were gotten last year. The boys use them for riding. Pet cats and kittens are found around the various cottages. During the summer time, cottage zoos are apt to spring up, together with a considerable rivalry among the cottages to see which can get together the best collection. Such zoos may contain among other things, turtles, snakes, frogs, pollywogs, minnows, rabbits. The rabbits are snared by the boys on the grounds; the other "wild animals" are collected in the woods and brook. Occasionally inhabitants of the zoo get taken out and may put in an appearance in classroom, dormitory or elsewhere. When this is done by one of the boys, the situation is handled simply and with good humor and no problem arises. (# 66)

The boys have various pets: goldfish, canaries, dogs, cats, pigeons, chickens, cows, sheep, two ponies, two goats, etc. The superintendent is planning a pet farm for the boys, back of the tennis courts on a sloping piece of ground. Here the boys will have their rabbit hutches, dog kennels, cotes for goats and sheep, and such coops and sheds as may be necessary for their various furred and feathered pets. The superintendent favors such a pet farm for two chief reasons. First, he plans thereby to teach the boys both how to care for pets and to raise animals. Secondly, such a pet farm will keep the boys out of doors and at the same time well employed. Incidentally the sheep, goats and rabbits will keep down the weeds on the grounds. (# 72)

All institutions can have at least some community pets, such as dogs, cats, or canaries. It is not, perhaps, possible in every institution to permit the keeping of individual pets, but it is possible in the majority of institutions, depending somewhat on the size and nature of the grounds and on the number of children in the institution. In the three institutions just quoted (# 27, # 66, # 72) as permitting individual pets, the population is respectively 156, 342, and 143. In the last two of these three institutions the grounds are extensive, but in the first of them the grounds are relatively very limited.

Two of the values of individual pet-keeping have been given in the last of the above excerpts. In addition, the keeping of pets, with its responsibility for feeding and care, helps keep alive the extremely important protective impulses, impulses that are the innate bases on which supernatural charity builds. Pet-keeping, too, tends to soften manners, to lead away from self-centeredness, and to provide outlets for the satisfaction of the craving for recognition and affection. Wherever possible, it is well to have community pets. It is still better if individual pets are permitted.

(5) *Collections and other Hobbies.* Children like to make collections,—of stamps, pictures, natural objects, or what not. Others take to airplane making, radio making, and so forth. All such collections and hobbies are worth encouraging. They absorb interest, enhance individuality, and stimulate resourcefulness, ingenuity, and initiative.

d. *Active Non-competitive Play.* Active non-competitive play is typical for children under six or seven, but many forms of it are common among older children and adults. Very popular among the younger children are the singing and ring games. Usually the pre-school age children who enter our institutions are little, if at all, familiar with the traditional singing and ring games. Some instruction is necessary. It may be given by kindergartners, by recreational leaders, or sometimes by the other children.

Among children under ten or twelve particularly, many kinds of apparatus play are delighted in. The most popular, judging from both our institution and our playground experience, are swings, slides and seesaws. The Junglegym is also well patronized on many playgrounds. The newer merry-go-round seems to have acquired a good deal of popularity, while for the children of grade-school age the giant stride seems to share honors with the rings, horizontal bar and climbing rope of the outdoor gym. Each of these types of play has its own values and may well be encouraged. There is some question regarding the worth of the merry-go-round, and certain simple precautions need to be taken in the use of the giant stride.

There are a number of land, water, and winter sports that have the common note of swift or unusual movement through space. The most popular of these "locomotor" land sports among the school-age children in our institutions appear to be roller skating, scooting,

bicycling, and riding in express wagons. Hiking, with camping or outdoor cooking is excellent. Among the winter sports in institutions in the north, coasting, ice skating, skiing and tobogganing hold high place in the affections of both children and adults. Skiing is rapidly increasing in popularity where climatic conditions are favorable.

Among the water sports swimming and boating remain ever popular, and deservedly so. A great number of our institutions either have their own swimming pools or beaches, as previously noted, or else make arrangements for children to use outside facilities. It is becoming more and more recognized that every child should learn how to swim, and the younger the child learns the better. Facilities for boating are naturally limited. A couple of the institutions however (# 22, # 38) have such facilities. Only older and more responsible children are permitted to go boating alone. It is perhaps not an overcautious policy to insist that no one, child or adult, should go out in small craft, rowboats, or canoes, unless he or she knows how to swim. But wherever possible the institution should do all that lies in its power to see that the children do get an opportunity to learn how to swim.

A couple of our institutions (# 22, # 75) are so situated as to permit a limited amount of fishing and hunting by the children.

All of the foregoing types of active non-competitive play have much to recommend them, particularly from the physical and emotional standpoint. Their emotional value is high, for they are absorbingly interesting for the children who take part in them. They keep the children out of doors in the fresh air and sunshine. Nearly all of them involve splendid exercise for the big muscles of arms and legs and trunk, and nearly all of them contribute to healthy respiration, circulation and digestion, to growth of muscle and to development of neuro-muscular skill and control.

e. *Social and Folk Dancing.* A great many of our institutions take special pains to teach the children how to dance. The older girls in particular are usually very fond of social dancing. It is an accomplishment most of them will need if they expect to get married! Moreover, it is a healthy type of exercise, and, if done properly, no Catholic moralist takes exception to it. As these girls are going to dance anyhow when they leave, it seems the part of wisdom to train them how to dance *properly*.

Folk dancing is taught in a great many, one half or more, of our institutions. Their experience is that it has more than justified the efforts made to have it taught.

The Irish jig, Russian folk dances, soft-shoe and clog dancing are taught the boys by the playground director. (# 7)

The girls of the lower grades are taught many of the folk dances by a special teacher. The children use appropriate costumes for the dances. (# 11)

The girls are taught folk dances (# 74, # 75), by the sisters (# 31), by the sister in charge of the gymnasium and of all recreational activities (# 18), by a physical instructor employed for this purpose (# 30), by a dancing instructor who comes once a week (# 46).

Folk dancing is taught to all the girls from the fourth grade up by a special instructor who is much interested in teaching rhythm to children. Plans are being made to extend the teaching to the younger children. (# 22)

Folk dancing is very popular among the girls. It is taught during school periods as a part of physical education training. (# 68)

Folk dancing is taught the children, and instruction is given correlating the dances with the customs and life of the respective peoples. (# 79, # 81).

There are few forms of play that have more to recommend them than folk dancing. From the physical standpoint it provides excellent active and vigorous exercise of the big-muscle type. Aesthetically it combines gesture, rhythm, music, and drama. It is highly adaptable to relatively small spaces, and can be carried on indoors or outdoors, in school, playroom, gym, or playground. It enlists the interest and participation of all or practically all the children. If well taught, it has proven extremely popular among the smaller boys and among the girls. Most folk dances do not take at all with school-age boys. On the other hand, there are a great many folk dances that do. Some types are mentioned above. To these could be added, many Indian dances, Swedish fighting dances, and a number of others.

Certain principles regarding folk dancing may be suggested as follows:

So far as possible folk dancing is better taught for forgetfulness of self and for joy in the dance itself, rather than for exhibition purposes. Exhibition "solo-dancing" is particularly to be avoided, as it centers attention too much on the individual star performer.

Folk dances involving large-muscle action of body, arms and legs are usually preferable to the types calling more for daintiness or for small-muscle movements, such as, for instance, the Javanese arm and wrist dances.

Dances making for good habits of movement and posture are preferable to such dances, as for instance, the crouching Indian dances.

Costumes are desirable but they should be simple and inexpensive. They can be made from crepe paper or other cheap material.

Good simple music is, of course, necessary. Victrola records for folk dances are readily available.

The simpler and more easily learned dances are preferable,—those requiring little explanation and plenty of vigorous action.

If taught in connection with school work, it is well to correlate folk dancing with knowledge of national customs. However this should not go so far as to make folk dancing a school task rather than a free and joyous play activity.

f. *Active Competitive Play.* On a preceding page it has been stated that the competitive element in play makes its appearance at about the beginning of the school age. This, however, does not mean that it makes its appearance suddenly and sharply. The competitive element, in germ form at least, appears much earlier in children's play. Moreover the competitive types of play, like other types, change and shift in kaleidoscopic fashion according to age, sex, season, "fashion" and other conditions. The competitive element is somewhat more prominent in the play of the children over six or seven years of age than it is in the play of the younger children, and somewhat more prominent among boys than among girls. Custom and caprice seem to determine such matters more than does

any hereditary emotional or physical condition. (For further details, cf. Lehman and Witty, *Psychology of play activities*).

Among the younger children in our institutions, the more popular types of active competitive play for boys and girls seem to be such games as tag, hide and seek, and hop scotch. Marbles or tops take better with boys than with girls. A number of the traditional games like prisoner's base and run-sheep-run have been more or less killed in our cities by the advent of the automobile, but in some institutions at least the children play them a great deal with much fun and profit.

In a number of our institutions (e.g., # 8, # 9, # 42, # 62, # 71, # 79, # 94, # 112) tennis courts are provided, and the game has proven very popular among the older boys and girls, from about the age of twelve years on. In addition to its physical benefits, tennis has back of it a long tradition of courtesy and good sportsmanship. Several of our institutions (# 36, # 69, # 70, # 81) have found that handball is very much liked by both boys and girls. In some places (# 72, # 95) horse-shoe pitching has taken very well with the boys.

Boxing is, of course, distinctly a boys' sport. It is not common in our institutions. In one, however, it has been given a good deal of prominence and has proven very popular, especially among the intermediate boys ranging in age from ten to fourteen. Some of the boys have taken part in exhibition contests. The superintendent has found, too, that sparring with the gloves on is a very effective substitute for non-recreative use of fists. (# 72).

g. *Team Games.* The team games are a more highly organized type of competitive play. In actuality teams are more commonly organized among boys and girls ten to twelve years of age or older. No iron rule, however, can be given, and it is quite possible that were our play customs and traditions different from what they are, we might have well organized teams at an appreciably earlier age. Even as things are, the germ of the team makes its appearance at a much earlier age in the familiar "sides". Moreover the rudiments of the more common team games like baseball, football and basketball are learned and practiced by much younger children. The team proper, however, is a fairly permanent and closely organized group. Team games have been traditional among our American boys.

Among the girls however they are of somewhat more recent introduction. Their popularity shows no sign of waning among the boys, and shows every sign of waxing among the girls.

Team games may be intramural, that is, played between teams made up of children living within the institution, or extramural, that is, played with outside teams.

(1) *Prevalent Conditions.* The most popular of the team games among boys in most of the institutions studied are baseball, basketball and football, with volley ball and dodge ball trailing quite a long distance behind; while among the girls the most popular by far, in most institutions are basketball and baseball, with volley ball and dodge ball as second choices.

Volley ball and dodge ball are usually intramural sports. Both games are seemingly more popular with girls than with boys, although in one institution (# 7) they are the favorite sports of the boys, most of whom are under fourteen. As children grow older volley ball and dodge ball are more apt to yield place in the affections both of boys and of girls to baseball and basketball. Volley ball, however, is sometimes very popular even with older boys of the gang age.

The policy of encouraging the children to play match games with outside teams is rapidly becoming the rule rather than the exception. Experience is proving its value. In a great number of the institutions studied, the boys regularly play match games of basketball and football with outside teams. These games are played either on the institution grounds or elsewhere. The following are some random illustrations.

The boys' baseball and football teams compete with outside teams. Their suits have been furnished by the Knights of Columbus. (# 20)

Both the baseball and basketball teams compete with outside teams. (# 29, # 52)

The boys' baseball team plays outside teams. (# 21)

The boys have their baseball team and also compete in track meets with outside schools. On one Sunday when the study of the institution was being made, a match game took place on the institution grounds between the institution team and

one of the local Boy Scout teams. The fine grandstand was filled with enthusiastic rooters. (# 38)

The boys' baseball team has won many trophies in competition with the local parish teams. Some of these games are played on the institution grounds, some on other grounds. (# 44)

While the study of the institution was being made, the baseball team was playing one of the parochial school teams on the institution grounds. The boys had made all arrangements for the game themselves. (# 49)

Boys have their own baseball, basketball and football teams that compete with the teams from the various schools on the outside. The boys take great pride in the trophies they have won in these matches. (# 62, # 93)

Baseball is very popular at a number of the girls' institutions, but in only one studied (# 22) was a record obtained of match games of baseball with outside teams. In quite a number of the institutions, however, the girls' basketball teams play match games with outside teams. The following are some illustrations.

The girls' basketball team, coached by one of the sisters, plays teams from the parochial schools. There are no prizes. The games are played *for good fellowship and for the sport of the game*. (# 46)

The girls play basketball among themselves, occasionally having a match game with a nearby parochial school. (# 48)

The girls' basketball team is a member of the local parochial school athletic league and takes full part in the match games for the league championship. The sisters feel that it has been well worth while in this way to bring the children in touch with outside groups. (# 55)

The favorite game of the larger girls is basketball. The girls have their own well-organized intramural league, but in addition for the last three years they have been playing outside teams regularly. (# 79)

(2) *Value of and Methods in Team Games.* (a) *In General.* Team games have certain values which no other type of game has. Team games are cooperative enterprises in which the individual

player must consistently subordinate his own interests to the interests of his team. In other words he carries out self-denial and self-sacrifice on the athletic level. Moreover he gets good practice in working shoulder to shoulder with his team mates as part of a group. Again, with our older American children at least, no type of play enlists their interest and enthusiasm to a higher degree than do the organized team games. Our American boys have traditionally been interested in team games. The increasing interest of girls in team play is a most encouraging recent development. The boy or girl who has never played on a team has been deprived of one of the keenest joys of life as well as one of the most fruitful opportunities for learning and practicing cooperation and, in its broadest but most literal Catholic sense, charity.

(b) *Intramural Team Games.* A great many of our institutions have organized highly successful intramural team sports. One of the outstanding purposes and values of intramural leagues and tournaments is to bring about as wide participation as possible in these games among the children in the institution. Pretty nearly every good thing in life has its own particular hazards. The outstanding hazard of all kinds of team games is, as experience proves, that of developing for team play a small group of children at the expense of the great mass of children. The hazard can be and is being well met by the organization of leagues and tournaments among the institution children. These bring about participation in the games by a very large number of the children, and in many institutions by practically all the children who are old enough to take part and who are not suffering from physical handicaps that make participation inadvisable or impossible.

All the boys who are physically fit are expected to play both baseball and basketball. The teams are classified according to size, age, and ability, and so all the boys are given a chance to participate in the match games. (# 45)

Among the girls, basketball teams are organized forming a senior group and a junior high group, each with its own captain and each with distinctive uniforms. These two teams play a series of games with each other during the season. (# 79)

The boys from eleven to sixteen years of age are divided into

six groups of forty boys each. The boys of groups A and B, of C and D, and of E and F respectively, are of approximately the same age. Each season three baseball teams are picked from each group of forty boys. Thus in each group of forty boys there are twenty-seven boys who are regular members of a team and there are some substitutes besides. The captains of the eighteen teams are chosen by the layman who is prefect of all the boys. The captains then in turn choose their teams using the ordinary hand-over-fist method to determine who shall choose first. Throughout the season the three teams from group F play a series of games with the three teams from group E, those from D with those from C, those from B with those from A. Thus there are three championship series going on simultaneously through the season, which ends on the field day or jamboree day at the end of the summer. These championship series keep most of the boys actively in the game, and all of the boys interested throughout the season. A similar plan is used for football. Four of the groups, the older boys, play the regulation football game, while the younger boys play soccer instead. (#68)

Baseball, football, basketball and volleyball leagues are so organized that practically all of the boys from the fourth grade up and many from the third grade as well take an active part in the league games. There are two leagues, the cottage league and the general group league. The boys in each cottage range from about five to fourteen years of age. Each cottage has its own representative team. The teams from the eight cottages are organized into a league and compete in a series of games for a trophy presented by the Knights of Columbus. The cottage league games arouse a good deal of interest. There is one weakness, however, in the cottage type of league. If one cottage happens to have the bulk of the good athletes, the other cottages lose interest in the cottage games, as they have little or no chance of winning the trophy, and it is not feasible to assign boys to a given cottage purely on the basis of their athletic ability. It is the group league, described in the following pages, that arouses the greatest interest. It is so organized as to preserve a better balance of athletic ability among the teams. (#66)

Inasmuch as this problem of preservation of balance of ability between the teams is, perhaps, the major factor making for the

success or failure of intramural leagues, it is thought worth while to give in detail the method of organization followed in the institution last quoted, an institution for boys only. The method may look at first sight a little complicated, but in reality it is relatively very simple and it meets so admirably the difficulty just mentioned that it may prove of value to other institutions. It is given here in full, with some further data illustrating both the success of the plan and some of the auxiliary devices that contribute to its success.

In the early part of the basketball season,—and the same procedure is followed for baseball, football and volleyball,—a number of scrub teams are formed and match games played. Thus the team leaders come to the top and a line is gotten on the best players. During this time the athletic director keeps in close touch with the boys and observes their play closely. He picks out eight captains. He chooses them for their skill as players and for their ability as leaders. The plan of electing captains by acclamation or by balloting was tried, but was found to be unsatisfactory, as the boys themselves were apt to elect the captains for their size rather than for their qualifications as leaders. The eight boys picked as captains are then rated by the athletic director, first, second, third, and so on, according to their individual athletic ability.

All the boys are then assembled in the gym and the captains choose their teams, eight members for each team, five regular players and three substitutes. In choosing the players for the respective teams the least capable of the eight captains is given first choice. From all the boys assembled he chooses the first member of his team. Then each of the other seven captains picks one boy from among all the candidates, the less able captains being given prior choice according to their rating, and in order, seventh, sixth, fifth, fourth, third, second, and first. In choosing the second member of their respective teams, the captains choose in reverse order, the captain rated ablest having first choice and so on. In choosing the third member, the captain rated the least able has first choice, the captain rating ablest having the last. This alternation continues until the eighth and last boy is chosen for each team.

After the eight teams are so chosen, the boys of each team choose their name for the team. Usually they choose the

name of colleges that happen to be prominent in athletics, such as Army, Notre Dame, and so forth.

The schedule of games is arranged as follows: If,—as in basketball,—there are eight teams in the league, each team plays a game with every other team. Every game is advertised beforehand on the bulletin board, and the results of matches are marked up thereon after each game. The standing of the teams is kept marked on the bulletin board while the series is going on. In basketball, the dates of the games are so arranged that the first series of the league games lasts until Christmas. The team that wins the first series becomes one of the two contestants in what is known as the “World Series”, of which more details will be given below.

After the first series of games is over, the gym is locked for two days and there is a complete break both in games and in practice for these two days. After this two-day period is over, steps are taken toward the organization of the second series as follows.

When the choice of team members for the second series takes place, the eight teams from the first series line up, each in its own group. The captain of each team keeps his three best players as the nucleus of his second team and throws the other five players into “the pot”. Then the choosing begins. The captain of the team that finished last in the first series gets first choice for fourth member of his team for the second series, and the captain of the team that finished second last gets second choice, and so forth. After this fourth member has been chosen, each captain is asked if he wishes to exchange any of his four players for any candidate still not chosen. He may make the exchange or decline to do so, as he wishes. After this, the captains proceed to choose their fifth team member, choosing in reverse order. They reverse again for the choice of the sixth member, and so on until the eighth man is chosen for all teams. After this these eight teams play a full schedule exactly as in the first series.

At the end of the second series is held the “World Series”. The “World Series” consists of five games played between the two teams that have won the first and second series respectively. If by chance the team that won the first series also wins the second, a “Green Tie Series” is played, as

follows. The athletic director picks the two best teams in the senior league, which are dubbed the "Terribles" and the "Horribles", and they play the championship match for the prize of a green tie, on St. Patrick's night.

Some of the other features of the team games and league matches are the following. The boys divide fairly well and freely into two groups of opposing rooters, at least in the "World Series". While the study of the institution was being made, one of the "World Series" matches in the basketball league took place on a Saturday night. Early in the afternoon on Saturday, a "tin can parade" of rooters was gotten up, apparently quite spontaneously, by the boys. A number of the boys appeared in two separate groups and marched around the grounds armed with tin cans and other noise-making paraphernalia. One of the boys had an old chair hung around his neck with a piece of tin where the cane should have been, which served as an improvised drum. Some of the boys were dressed as clowns or were done up in dominoes. The two groups of rooters paraded around the grounds, each rooting for its respective favorite, the Red or the Green, the two contestants in the "World Series".

At the game itself in the evening, the two groups of rooters took their places on opposite sides of the gym. Leading each group of rooters was a cheer leader in white ducks and equipped with a megaphone. The cheer leaders wore red and green sweaters, corresponding to the Red and Green championship teams. Not the least interested spectators of the match game were the sisters in the gallery. And nearly everybody else from the whole grounds was present. The game went off in the same order as a regular college game, the referee making his decisions and permitting no challenges.

The same plan in league formation, organization and schedule is carried out in baseball, football and volley ball.

It would be hard to imagine keener and more sustained interest on the part of a large body of boys than is aroused by this plan. Moreover it results in participation on the part of practically all the boys who are old enough at all to play team games. One of the key factors that seem to have brought about this interest and participation is the method followed in so choosing the teams as to secure equality in athletic ability among the players. (# 66)

(c) *Extramural Team Games.* If the marked growth of extramural sports for institutional children were in danger of leading to a neglect of intramural play and sports, it were better far to scrap the former at once and for good. *It is much more important that ninety or a hundred per cent of the children within the institution take active part in sports, than that the institution develop a championship team to represent it on the outside.* The hazard of overemphasis on extramural sports at the expense of intramural play does not appear, however, in our institutions, and, with a little good sense and a little foresight and planning, it need not be feared at all. In reality we find that those of our institutions that permit or encourage extramural sports have also splendid intramural programs that bring the great mass of the children into active participation in these sports.

Both intramural and extramural sports contribute to the general morale and spirit of any school or institution. In addition, so far as child-caring homes are concerned, extramural sports have some very special and important values. Three of the more outstanding ones are the following. First, they provide opportunity for wholesome contact with the world outside the institution; secondly, they help to break down the sense of inferiority that so often exists among children in institutions; thirdly, they can be used as media for excellent training in courtesy and good sportsmanship.

These three values have been explicitly and repeatedly emphasized during the present Study by our institutional authorities. The following excerpt is given in illustration:

Extramural sports contribute to the social development not only of the team members but also of the other children in the home. The children come into direct contact as equals with children in the outside world, and find themselves in every way equipped to hold their own. Thus they gain a self-confidence that is carried over into the rest of life. They receive and extend hospitality, and develop a pride in their institution when they see the place it holds in the esteem of those outside its walls. When they leave the institution, they do not feel they are strangers in a strange world, and they are at ease when mixing with and meeting those with whom they come in contact. Neither do we find extramural sports detrimental to the intramural program. The team members are chosen from the ranks and represent all the children, and

these latter feel that the victory belongs to the whole school.
(# 201)

The second of the three chief values listed above was tersely expressed by one superintendent as follows:

Success in extramural athletics kills the inferiority complex. The benefits of defeat can be gotten through intramural competition. (# 54)

As for training in courtesy, when the team goes outside for a match game, it usually is the guest of its opponents, while when a visiting team comes to the institution, all the children therein play the part of hosts. Sportsmanship can be learned and practised in intramural sports, but it is learned and practised under more educative conditions as a rule in extramural sports.

These three values of extramural teams, as well as many of the values of intramural play, are also admirably attained,—some think, even better attained,—through the group activities, such as play days, field days, and many types of club, to be described later in the present chapter.

(d) *Team Games and the Girl.* Modern competitive athletics have grown up under masculine direction. It was but natural therefore that the girl on entering this new field was guided more or less by boys' athletic traditions. At times there has been a tendency to ape the boy too closely. Fortunately there has been a distinct reaction against indiscriminate imitation in the last five years, and policies in girls' athletics are now being shaped much more definitely by the girls' own needs, capabilities, and limitations. Some of the more important policies in line with this shift may be noted as follows.

(i) Certain team games are either not suitable for girls or else require adaptation. Girls should play basketball by girls' rules, emphatically not by boys' rules. In many cases, too, it is more advisable that the halves be no longer than five minutes or at most ten minutes; it may be advisable too with some groups to have the game divided into four quarters of five minutes each. Football is, of course, not suitable for girls at all, except soccer or a modified form of soccer. As regards baseball, just as much fun can ordinarily be gotten out of playground or indoor baseball played outdoors as from the regulation game. The rules differ in some details and a softer

ball is used for playground baseball. Volleyball or Newcomb can be played by a very considerable number of participants on a very small plot of ground. Both games have a great deal to recommend them and have proven very popular with girls, once the rudiments of the games have been mastered. It is probably better to start with Newcomb than with volleyball proper.

(ii) It is perhaps unnecessary to suggest that coaches of girls' athletics should be women and not men, although outside of institutions this policy is unfortunately not always adhered to.

(iii) In athletics, girls should be dressed for comfort and health. In some institutions girls wear skirts; in others they wear bloomers. Apropos of the use of the latter may be quoted a resolution passed at the 1928 Conference of the National Council of Catholic Women:

"Whereas, careful study of costumes made by the best sports-goods houses and used by the majority of private and public schools and colleges, leads to the conclusion that the necessary requirements for an appropriate costume for the girl and young woman in athletics may be met by—

The knicker-bloomer of material suited to the season:

Middie blouses for children:

Tailored shirts with long (or short) sleeves for older girls:

Sweaters, sleeveless, or with sleeves according to season:

Long stockings and 'sneakers'.

Be It Resolved: that the National Council of Catholic Women recommend the above costume as best suited to feminine dignity and the best interest of sportsmanship and good health."

Shortly after the passage of this resolution there was received from the Cardinal Prefect of the Sacred Congregation of the Council a message "approving with supreme pleasure the resolution adopted by the National Council of Catholic Women regarding the athletic costumes of women."

(iv) Basketball is a rather strenuous game, decidedly so if played by boys' rules, though less so if played by girls' rules. In any case before a girl enters a match game, it should be known whether her physical condition is such as to make her entrance advisable. As for her fitness in general, this can be determined by refer-

ence to her physical examination record; as for her fitness at the particular time, the maturity chart referred to in the chapter on Physical Care can be used as a very simple and convenient guide for the athletic director. It may be added that even for boys, participation in strenuous match games of basketball should presuppose a clean bill of health and a good heart on the part of the boy,—these facts to be determined by previous physical examination. Basketball by boys' rules is perhaps the most strenuous of team games, not excepting football. Whether for boys or for girls, taking part in basketball tournaments that require their playing more than one hard match game in any single twenty-four hour period is inadvisable. Tournaments should be so arranged that no competing team should be required to play more than one game on the same day, and preferably not more than about three such match games in a given week.

h. *Clubs.* A good many of our institutions encourage the formation of clubs among the boys and girls,—Boy and Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, 4-H Clubs or unattached clubs. The following are a few illustrations.

All the boys from ten up are members either of the Wolf Cubs or of the Scout troop. The boys join other troops on hikes and outings. A noticeable improvement has taken place in the boys' attitudes towards one another since the organization of the troop. (# 30)

The Scout troop has thirty boys in it. They have their streamers, and scout flags, and other paraphernalia, and a number of trophies won in competition with other troops in the city. (# 44)

The troop of thirty-two boys meets weekly on Friday night in the Scout room. Every Monday night they go off for a swim with the scoutmaster to a nearby public high school. They also take full part in all Scout activities in the community. (# 68)

The Scouts in the troop who did the best work were awarded a two weeks' outing at the Boy Scout camp last summer. (# 71)

The Scout troop takes part in all Scout activities. Results have been excellent. (# 103, # 104)

The girls have their Scout troop with regular weekly meetings. They visit other Scout troops. (# 11)

There are five patrols of Girl Scouts, patrols being formed according to grade, each grade with its own elected leader. Meetings are held weekly. During the summer months, meetings are held in some spot out in the country, the girls usually hiking back and forth. They seem to enjoy immensely this part of the program. (# 52)

The Girl Scout troop meets once a week after supper from six to seven o'clock. (# 57)

The older girls are members of the Campfire Girl troop and are very keen about gaining the honors of the troop. During the time of the study the girls attended a banquet in the nearby city. This is one of the many ways in which they are brought in contact with the neighboring troops. (# 71)

About fifty of the boys and girls are members of the 4-H Club. This membership gives them a certain amount of outside contact. Meetings are held monthly. (# 97)

The high school girls have their own club with meetings weekly, and with elected officers. The group organizes its own plans, looks after the library, and has many good times together. (# 46)

The Junior High has its own group with officers, and with meetings conducted according to parliamentary law. Committees are appointed by the president on Athletics, Morale, Choir, Store, Library, and Social Events. Good records in behavior and work are required of prospective members, who remain on probation one month after their application before being accepted. The Club has accomplished much in promoting the honor system in the institution. Its varied activities are indicated by the titles of the Committees. (# 79)

The girls from the sixth grade up have their organization called the St. Elizabeth's Club. There are twenty-five members in it. To be eligible for membership a girl must have above 85% in her studies. There are Committees on Social Ethics, Entertainment, Refreshments, Athletics, School Reports, Store Accounts, Choir, Library, Rules, and Applications. Meetings are held monthly. The girls preside although the sister is present to coach them if necessary in parliamen-

tary procedure. The Club publishes its own mimeographed monthly called "Our Broadcaster". The paper is sold on the outside; subscriptions to it help to pay for entertainments, for club pins, and so forth. The girls sometimes have their own special outings. The Club has been a good influence in the institution, and has served to provide a fair measure of self-government. (# 55)

There are two types of clubs in favor in our institutions, the unattached clubs as exemplified by the last three excerpts, and the clubs that constitute units in larger national organizations. The Scouts and similar troops are more popular with children from ten or twelve to about fifteen or sixteen. The unattached clubs are suitable to nearly any age from about twelve up. Such clubs, whether national or unattached, are in no sense a substitute for a good recreational program in the institution. At most they constitute only a fractional part of an allround recreational program. But generally speaking, where they are conducted under competent leadership, they have real values for the institutional child.

Some of these values are common both to the child within and the child outside the institution; other values are peculiar to the institution. Our American boys and girls from ten or twelve to fifteen or over tend to group themselves into small gangs and sets respectively, the girls as much as the boys. These gangs and sets are ordinarily quite harmless and in fact have some excellent points about them, but on the other hand they sometimes have certain obvious dangers of clannishness, of over-exclusiveness, and so forth. The club capitalizes the best factors in the spontaneous gang or set, while holding at bay the undesirable factors.

The club in the institution has in addition certain special advantages. It gives the children experience in self-government and leadership. It helps to enrich and to lend variety to their leisure-time program. It promotes initiative and spontaneity. Moreover, the types of national clubs, such as the Scouts, increase opportunities for outside contacts and bring about wider fraternal relations between the children within and the children without the institution. They also help to do away with the sense of inferiority. In addition, in many localities at least, they furnish a great many advantages in the way of swimming, camping, and other facilities which the institution children would otherwise not enjoy.

i. *Group Contests.* A permanent problem in many institutions and in many day schools and boarding schools is that of getting the maximum number of children into active healthful play. Team games and leagues do this splendidly. But they do not ordinarily reach the younger children, and usually too they do not reach all the older children. Some further plans for enlisting the interest of larger numbers of the children, and also for adding variety to the play program are athletic badge tests, tournaments, play days, and field days.

(1) *Athletic Badge Tests.* We have not found the athletic badge tests in use in any of the institutions visited during the present study. According to this plan, definite detailed standards, differing according to age and sex, have been determined by actual tryout among great numbers of boys and girls. For the boys, standards have been set for such things as dashes, broad and high jumping, baseball throwing, rope climbing, and climbing the bar; for girls, standards in balancing, running, ball throwing and serving, and other events. The individual child who makes the standards for his or her age and sex is awarded a badge.

In schools the average of a whole class is often matched against the average of a corresponding class in the other schools of the city for the city-wide trophy. Eighty per cent at least of the class must participate before the class record counts in the competition. Experience has been that this type of competition has brought about enthusiastic participation in wholesome and health-building physical activities by a large number of boys and girls who otherwise would not take part, but who, under the stimulus of class honor and of coaching from the other children of the class, enter with zeal and interest into the plan. The plan can easily be adapted to institution conditions. Institutions interested are urged to write for a copy of the revised standards to: The National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York City.

(2) *Tournaments.* Tournaments,—whether in team games, or in active games like tennis, horse shoes or quoits, marbles, kite-flying, hopscotch, and so forth, or in quiet games like checkers, dominoes, crokinole, pingpong or other indoor or table games,—all have a very definite value. They enlist the keen interest of a large number of children over a more or less prolonged period. Such series

and tournaments are in great favor in many of our institutions and have proven valuable additions to the recreational program (e.g., # 7, # 20, # 67, # 68, # 72, # 88).

(3) *Play Days*. The play day is of very recent introduction but has won popularity and approval with remarkable rapidity. It has many of the elements of the field day, but differs therefrom in important respects. Instead of school competing with school, school team with school team, and star athlete with star athlete, as in field days, the play day emphasizes competition between color teams. Each team, with its assigned color, is made up of one or more children from each school or group participating in the play day. Thus children from one school play on the same team with children from other schools, and against teams which are apt to include some of their own schoolmates. Each child is given a color at the beginning of the day, and plays throughout the day with others of the same color team but competing against a number of other teams of different colors. The team that scores highest for the day wins. The honor thus goes not to any one of the schools participating but to a team composed of one or more children from each of the schools taking part in the play day. Such association and athletic comradeship on the same team with children of other schools should prove of particular value for the institutional child. The plan is new but appears to offer great promise for the institution. To date, its best success has been had with girls and to a certain extent with boys of grade-school age. It is adaptable to indoors as well as outdoors, to any season of the year, to any number of participating schools or institutions, and to any combination of contests and events. It can be held as an intramural event, and as often as desired during any single year. For descriptive literature, see reference in bibliography at the end of the present chapter.

(4) *Field Days*. Field days, held either towards the close of the school year or towards the end of the summer, are events looked forward to and long prepared for by the youngsters in a great number of the institutions (e.g., # 7, # 11, # 20, # 34, # 66, # 68, # 77). Where the facilities are at all available, field days are well worth having. They require, it is true, just a bit of work in the way of preparation, but on the other hand much of the preparation can be entrusted to the older children themselves. Not the least of the

advantages of the field day is the fact that it is looked forward to with keen eagerness for weeks ahead, during which time the children busy themselves practising for the races, games, and other events.

The field day is an invaluable addition to the year-round play program and is found such by experience in all institutions that have inaugurated it. We have come across no institution that has ever given up the annual field day once it has been inaugurated. In some institutions, on the occasion of the annual field day a great many friends of the institution and of the children come in to renew old acquaintance and to show their interest, in both material and non-material ways, in the welfare of the institution and of the children. In some institutions it is customary to have a pageant, elaborate or simple as the case may be, in connection with the field day.

j. *Celebrations.* Most of our institutions celebrate some or all of the great religious, national and local holidays, such as Christmas, Easter, Thanksgiving, Hallowe'en, St. Valentine's Day, Washington's Birthday, Fourth of July, and so forth. All of these celebrations are well worth while. They give the children something to look forward to and much to remember. It is well where possible to have the children take partial or full responsibility for decorations. It gives them good aesthetic and imaginative training. Where entertainments are part of the celebration, it is ordinarily an advisable plan to put the emphasis on group participation in the entertainment rather than upon solo performances, although there is no good reason for tabooing the soloist entirely.

k. *Summer Activities.* Under this heading we are including some forms of recreation that are more peculiar to the summer time: picnics and outings, outdoor meals, going barefoot, camping and tenting.

(1) *Picnics and Outings.* All or practically all of our institutions arrange picnics and outings for the children from time to time. Such days spent away from the institution are excellent in every way. They are something the children look forward to, and they leave pleasant memories. The following excerpts give some special features of picnics.

During the summer there are many picnics with open-air meals and camp-fires. These outings are held a long distance from the institution. The children go in autos and busses

contributed by friends of the institution and remain from early morning until dark. (# 14)

Picnics are held weekly during vacation. (# 55)

Many picnics are held in the summer, most of them at the farm belonging to the institution. (# 67)

The playgrounds being rather small, many summer outings and picnics are arranged, frequently as often as two or three times a week. A record was kept of picnics and parties held during 1927; these totaled eighty-six for the year. (# 88)

We must avoid monotony and sameness in the country as well as in the city. Even in summer homes, the children look forward to their weekly or bi-weekly picnics. These give their minds and tongues plenty to think and talk about during the long summer days, and ward off trouble that is sure to arise if minds be idle. (# 201)

(2) *Outdoor Meals.* In some institutions it has been found possible to arrange during the summer to have the children take some of their meals outdoors, but on the institution grounds, in picnic fashion. The children enjoy the change very much. Seemingly the plan has been worked out at the institutions that use it without placing any grave extra burden on the institution staff and kitchen force. It is well that the children help in carrying out the plan. Some examples follow.

During the summer the children are often permitted to have open-air meals on the grounds. (# 39, # 95, # 100)

Not far from the entrance to the kitchen is a play pavilion. During the summer the children regularly eat dinner and supper therein. (# 60)

During the summer time meals are often eaten outdoors instead of in the dining room. For instance, without any particular pre-planning or formality, a sister in charge of one of the cottages will get food supplies from the kitchen, take all her boys, go out into the woods on the grounds with them, cook supper over a camp fire, and come back at dark. Sometimes a couple of cottages will go together for such a supper in the woods. Sometimes, too, a camp supper is served all the boys out in the open on the playground, the supper being cooked over an outdoor fire. (# 66)

(3) *Going Barefoot.* Judging from the data gathered during the present study, opinion seems to be pretty evenly divided as regards granting or denying permission to the children to go barefoot. Data on the point were gathered from twenty-four of the institutions. Of these, thirteen do not permit the children to go barefoot at all, while eleven permit it either quite freely or under some limitations. Experience seems to have differed somewhat. One institution, (# 27) for instance, formerly allowed the children to go barefoot; but so many stone bruises resulted that the permission had to be withdrawn. Other institutions however do not seem to have had any appreciable difficulty on the score of bruises and cuts. Possibly the nature of the surfacing on the institution grounds may explain the difference in experience. Some institutions (e.g., # 105) are not in favor of girls going barefoot. In another institution (# 64) going barefoot is not allowed, because, for one reason, comments have been made by visitors regarding "the orphans forced to go without shoes". On the other hand, it is expressly permitted in one institution (# 71) because it is thought healthful for the children. In another institution (# 81) the girls do not go barefoot at all, but the sister is planning to let the boys do so as she feels that not granting them this privilege is depriving them of one of the real treats of childhood.

Local conditions must no doubt be taken into account when deciding whether to grant or deny permission for the children to go barefoot during the summer time. As suggested above, surfacing of the grounds is an important consideration. If the grounds are surfaced with gravel or cinders or similar material, ugly bruises and cuts may occur. On the other hand, with going barefoot as with swinging, no psychologist has analysed the reasons for its popularity among children, but its popularity is ordinarily real, not to say intense. Even if it be felt advisable not to grant general permission at all times, perhaps it may be possible, as is done in some institutions (e.g., # 14, # 88), to allow the children to take off their shoes and stockings after a heavy rain, or on the grass, or at some short period during the week as just before a bathing hour. In most institutions it should be quite possible at least to allow the children to play part of the time in hot weather wearing shoes but no stockings, as is done in some institutions (e.g., # 27, # 67, # 124) that do not permit the children to go barefoot.

(4) *Camping and Tenting.* Some institutions have their summer camps to which they remove part or all of the children for part or all of the summer months. The following illustrations may be given.

In many of our houses we have gone far towards solving the health problem by providing summer houses. Where this has been done the records show a marked decrease in illness of all kinds among the children. The plan makes for both mental and physical development. These summer homes could hardly be called summer camps in view of the many conveniences to be found, yet without these conveniences many of the health-giving results would be lost. (# 201)

As soon as the school year closes, all of the children and all of the sisters leave the city home for the summer villa and remain there until the opening of school in the fall. During this time the children are given the maximum possible of fresh air and outdoor recreation. The villa has its own extensive woods and playgrounds, and its own lake for swimming, boating and fishing. Here the children romp and run and play from morning until night, unrestricted in their choice of play and with the freedom of the grounds. (# 22)

The institution has a summer camp for the children on the top of a mountain about thirty-five miles from the city in which the institution is located. A private road extends from the main road up and around one of the peaks to the very attractive house built of mountain stones of all colors and sizes which were collected on the grounds by the children and sisters. The house is equipped with modern conveniences and has its own chapel and infirmary. A rustic atmosphere, however, pervades the whole camp. The cooking, for instance, is done in the same room in which the children eat. In addition to the main building, there are barns and other buildings on the grounds. The view from the mountain top is a magnificent one. During the summer time all the children of the institution are given an outing at the mountain camp, usually fifty of them going at a time for a two-week or three-week period, being conveyed there in large trucks. The sister in charge of the camp is an ideal companion for the children. She enters into their games and moods and is one of them. There is no fixed program of organized play. The children are perfectly free to do as they will. (# 18)

The institution has its own summer home about forty-five miles from the city, located on the side of a hill about five miles from the main road. The house was given to the sisters. It is of brick construction. It commands a lovely view of the surrounding country. There are flower and vegetable gardens, and orange, grapefruit, lemon, walnut and many other trees. The whole place is beautifully kept. The entire property covers sixty acres of ground. The house will accommodate sixty children at a time, together with the number of sisters required to supervise them. All the children are given a vacation here for part of the summer months, going in groups of sixty. (# 79)

All the older boys and girls spend two weeks every summer at the diocesan summer camp. They go, not in one large group, but a few at a time, mingling with the other children from the city. They are furnished with outfits similar to those of the other children and are given the same amount of spending money so that they will not feel in any way different from their camp mates. The experience has been that this camp contact has been highly beneficial to the children in many ways. (# 27)

About midsummer the children used to get restless, tired and uneasy, notwithstanding ample play facilities and plenty of time and freedom for recreation. Moreover, when school reopened in September, a great many of the children entered with little spirit or zest. The institution, therefore, arranged to rent a piece of land bordering on a lake and took all the children there for a three or four-week camping trip. This solved entirely the problem of restlessness. Furthermore, returning to the institution in the city, the children get a better realization of the material comforts of the city house and they also re-enter school willingly and gladly. The institution has given up an earlier plan to purchase a tract for a permanent camp, and instead rents a new camping tract each year, as it feels the change and variety under this latter plan are better. (# 88)

Not all institutions have the good fortune to possess their own summer home or summer camp. It is quite possible, however, that a good many could arrange to have the children go off to camp or elsewhere for a period during the summer. The expense is, of

course, prohibitive for many institutions, but on the other hand part of the expense involved for the summer camp or outing is saved on the current home budget. Where it is not at all feasible for an institution to have its summer place, either owned or rented, it is sometimes possible (as, e.g., in # 27 above and # 20) to provide an outing for the children in a diocesan or other inexpensive camp. Certainly any sacrifice that can be made along this line within the limits of the institution's financial resources is well worth the making. Such at least has been the unanimous experience of the institutions that have been able to arrange to have children spend part of the summer away from the institution.

One institution that has not been able to arrange for its own summer camp has tried the following experiment:

Tents are set up on the grounds near the main buildings and the boys are permitted to "camp out". Each tent is under the direction of a prefect. The boys are placed on their honor, with the understanding, however, that if any trouble in camp should develop the entire program would have to be discontinued. The plan has seemingly worked very well. (# 93)

REFERENCES

General. As a brief non-technical introduction to the field may be consulted: H. S. Curtis, *School grounds and play*. Full outline of practically all theoretic and practical aspects of play, with ample bibliographies: Jos. Lee, ed., *Normal course in play*, rev. ed., 1926. Excellent papers with special reference to play in institutions: P. H. Furfey, *Problem of recreation in institutions*; "Recreation," in *Cath. char. rev.*, May, 1926, x, 182-83. See also series of 7 articles by Cooper on various phases of play in *Cath. educ. rev.*, Dec. 1921-June, 1922 incl., xix-xx.

Value of Play. Excellent summary in "Normal Course" cited above, and in H. S. Curtis, *Education through play*, ch. ii-iv. On transfer of training, see: Cooper, "Do play traits breed life traits?," in *Cath. char. rev.*, May, 1925, ix, 170-73.

Space and Equipment. For brief outline, see Curtis, *School grounds and play*, or Curtis, *Educ. through play*, ch. vii,—both cited above. For fuller details on layout and equipment of grounds, fields, pools, etc., see: *Play areas, their design and equipment*, prepared by Playground and recr. assoc. of Amer., 1928. On apparatus, see: "Report of Committee on standards in playground apparatus," in *Playground and recreation*, Jan. 1930, xxiii, 631-34. On swimming pools,—construction, sanitation, etc.,—see: J. B. Nash, *Organization and administration of playgrounds and recreation*, ch. xxviii; on wading pools: *Play areas*, cited above, and art. "Wading pools", in *Playground and recreation*, Aug. 1929, xxiii, 306-15; on supplies, see Nash, *l. c.*, ch. xvii.

Types of Games in General. The classic work is: J. H. Bancroft, *Games for the playground, home, school and gymnasium*. Many shorter collections, such as: G. E. Johnson, *Education by plays and games*; M. T. Speakman, *Brief manual of games*. For games for gang-age boys and girls, see: C. F. Smith, *Games and recreational methods*.

Special Types. For rules and directions for team games, see: *Spalding's Manuals*, publ. by Amer. sports publ. co., N. Y. C. On the athletics for girls, see: *Women and athletics*, 1930; *Cath. char. rev.*, Jan. 1925, ix, 3-6, or *Cath. educ. rev.*, Mar. 1925, xxiii, 140-47. On play days, see: E. Perrin and G. Turner, *Play day, the spirit of sport*, with bibliography. On conduct of field days, see: *Recreative athletics*, prep. by Playgr. and recr. assoc., rev. and enl. ed., 1929. On summer camps, see: *The Catholic summer camp*, Nat. conf. Cath. char., D. C., 1928.

Further bibliographical guides to various phases of play and clubs may be found in: P. H. Furfey, *The Parish and play; Normal course in play*, cited above; *List of references on play and playgrounds*, U. S. Bur. of educ., 1924. Current developments in the whole field, and numberless concrete plans, devices, suggestions, etc., may be found in: *Recreation* (formerly *Playground and recreation*), publ. monthly, by National recr. assoc. (formerly Playground and recreation assoc. of America), address given above, subscription \$2.00 a year,—the best play periodical for institutions.

CHAPTER VIII

EDUCATION

Education in its broadest sense includes everything done by and for the child from birth that trains him to take his part in human society. A good deal of this process, religious, moral, and health education particularly, is covered in other chapters. In the present chapter attention will be confined chiefly to the academic or scholastic education of the child.

Scholastic education is a vast field. Even a summary of this field would require a whole manual in itself. Moreover, so far as the educational system in institutions is concerned, this is covered by the pedagogical traditions and policies of the respective religious orders, in cooperation with diocesan superintendents of education and with secular educational authorities. In this chapter, we shall select for treatment only certain problems which are more or less peculiar to or particularly urgent in child-caring homes. The chapter is therefore of necessity somewhat sketchy. A certain order may, however, be secured by grouping the points treated under three major headings: general education, vocational education, and cultural education.

A. GENERAL EDUCATION

Certain problems in the field of general education present aspects more or less peculiar to the child-caring institution. The chief problems are: the amount and type of education to be given; retardation and mental defect; summer schools; going out to school; arrangements for study periods; educational excursions; reading and library facilities; special opportunities of the institution.

I. AMOUNT AND TYPE

a. *Prevalent Conditions.* A brief summary of prevalent conditions may first be given. Some details will be presented later. All our institutions provide, either within or outside the institution,

for education through the eight elementary grades. About one fourth of the institutions studied have kindergarten courses. About half of the institutions, that is, practically all that have children of high school age, provide high school education, either commercial or academic or both; about seventy-five per cent of these same institutions have the children attend outside high school. In several institutions arrangements are made for particularly talented children to continue on through college.

b. *Guiding Principle.* It is generally recognized among our institutions today that the *amount and kind of education given to the institutional child should be in accordance with the child's need and capacity for education.* This is merely a particular application to the institution of a broad principle accepted in the educational world for all children.

(1) *Capacity.* God has given to mankind the natural resources of the earth and human abilities to utilize these resources toward higher ends. It is a primary religious duty to waste neither natural nor human resources. If a given child has the ability and capacity to profit by education, then it becomes our duty, within our financial and other limitations, to provide the child with such education as will enable him to make fullest use of the talents and the abilities God has given him, and to devote them to the best and highest purposes. Any vocation in life, however humble and menial it may seem, has its own dignity and nobility. For all honest vocations carry out literally the law of charity, inasmuch as all honest labor helps supply human needs and so comes within the wide circle of neighborly love. On the other hand, there is no ground either in reason or in faith for routing the institutional child into blind-alley jobs, if he has the ability to do work more useful to others and more adapted to provide him with reasonable remuneration.

(2) *Need.* Ordinarily the institutional child has more need for educational advantages than has the child living at home. The institutional child is more apt than the other to be thrown on his own resources early in life. He commonly lacks comfortably fixed parents and relatives on whom he can lean or fall back during the early period of his economic independence.

We have further to keep in mind the important fact that most unskilled trades and blind-alley jobs do not provide a living wage, at

least not a family living wage, under our present American conditions, notwithstanding our vaunted prosperity. It may be conservatively estimated that *from one-half to two-thirds of the girls and and women employed in American industries are receiving less than a living wage, and that at least a half of the unskilled male industrial workers of the country,—and the unskilled form about four-fifths of all workers,—are receiving less than a family living wage.* It would seem then to be economic wisdom on the part of the institution to do all it reasonably can to prepare its children, not necessarily for wealth or even for white collar jobs, but for such vocations in life as will net them at least a living wage. In the stern economic struggle of today, the boy or girl who goes out into life without either a high school education or the prospects of learning a skilled trade is headed more likely than not for a position the income from which will be insufficient to guarantee the basic necessities of life.

A final consideration is this. Contentment in one's life work is the resultant of many factors. A very important factor is equality between the ability of the job-holder and the ability required by the job. If a man or woman, having ability but lacking education, has to choose a life work that calls into play only a fraction of his or her ability, work palls, interest wanes, labor becomes drudgery, and discontent easily follows.

The foregoing are some of the chief reasons that are urging our institutions to give their children every advantage of education which the institution can afford and by which the children can profit. The reasons and the policy founded thereon are in full accord both with good social principles and with the Catholic philosophy of life.

c. *Determination of Capacity.* Children differ in ability, and consequently in the capacity for profiting by education. The principle of educating according to capacity raises therefore the question: How shall we determine the capacity of individual children? There is no royal road to this goal. Intelligence tests, *scientifically administered and cautiously interpreted*, give excellent practical working clues to the ability of the individual child. We have elsewhere emphasized the importance of extreme care both in giving intelligence tests and in interpreting the results thereof. We may merely re-emphasize here the importance of interpreting intelligence tests, particularly group tests, as significant symptoms, but never as final crit-

eria. Many other factors besides native ability affect the gross results of intelligence tests. Nevertheless these results used as clues and symptoms shed much light on individual capacity. It is recognized on all sides however that the results of tests need to be further checked up by the class and work record of the particular children, and that much allowance must be made, especially in the case of children who register as borderline or sub-normal, for physical, emotional and other factors that frequently affect the results seriously.

In general, then, our criteria for determining capacity are success or failure in classroom and other work as measured by general progress and by achievement tests. Tests of special aptitudes, such as the Seashore tests of musical ability or the Stenquist tests of mechanical ability, may also help. The use of general intelligence tests as further checkups is very important. It is probably not necessary to call attention to the difference between the two types of tests in common use in schools, intelligence tests proper on the one hand, and achievement tests on the other. The latter are intended primarily to measure learning, the former to measure native ability.

Before passing from the discussion of principles to the formulation of recommendations, it seems worth while reviewing the problems and conditions the institution actually faces in providing high school education for its children. The more urgent of these problems and conditions are outlined in the following comment.

We find that the majority of boys and girls, upon finishing grade school, are most eager to enter high school. How can such high school advantages best be provided?

In some cases, the children are taken home by their guardians and parents to be sent to high school. In a few rare cases this intention is carried out and the child does complete the four-year course. But in the majority of cases the children, after leaving the institution, find jobs, and so do not enter high school, or else make a start but drop out before finishing the first year. This solution therefore of the problem of providing high school education for the institutional child is ordinarily not a successful one.

An alternative solution is for the institution to maintain its own high school. For financial and other reasons, however, the average institution is not able to do this. The cost and upkeep of the required laboratories alone is ordinarily prohibitive.

In many of our large cities, it is possible to have the children attend Catholic high schools, but in many other cities such opportunities are not available. In several of our larger institutions the girls attend the diocesan high school and on their return to the institution are under the immediate supervision of a special sister who presides over their study periods, and gives help, direction and advice in all matters that concern this particular group of girls. They form a more advanced unit than the children in the institution and have different regulations. Thus they do not interfere with the régime prevailing in the rest of the institution. These units have run very smoothly and no complications have arisen.

In another of our institutions we have only the first year of high school. This plan has proved perhaps the most satisfactory of all. The eighth grade graduates are not only allowed but encouraged to enter this first year high class. Our statistics from the high schools of the country show a marked mortality after the end of the first year high. Even where departmental work has been given in the grades or junior high, conditions in the high school differ so much from conditions to which the pupils have been accustomed, that when they realize the work and effort the high school implies they change their minds and decide to follow other lines. Where we have the first year high in the institution, the boys and girls on the one hand more readily enter it and on the other hand have a chance to test out the work for themselves and to give the staff in charge a better understanding of whether they are qualified to continue through the four years' work. It often happens that pupils who were apparently the most promising in the grades do not fit nearly so well into high school work as do some who were considered less capable of taking up such work. By the end of this first year of trial and observation we are better able to advise continuance or discontinuance. This moreover is more satisfactory to the outside schools that look after our institutional children for us, for we thus largely avoid the danger of taking up time and space in such outside schools with pupils who will not follow the high school course to the end. Often, too, at the end of this first year of high school, the children themselves desire to change from a classical to a commercial course.

We must further never lose sight of the fact that the children

in our institutions must all be fitted to earn their own livelihood and that in the shortest possible time. The question may fairly be raised as to *how far high school training, as at present organized, actually fits children to earn a livelihood*. If they have followed the *classical* course, at its completion they are ordinarily not fitted to take up anything definite, and the problem of equipping them for life still remains to be solved.

If our charges are to be fitted for nursing, teaching, or some other profession, I should advise by all means the full high school course. In other cases it would appear that one or two years of high school education followed by some commercial or technical course will more definitely meet the demands of the actual children we handle. Under this plan they are then in a position to be self-supporting when they finish their school career at eighteen and are ready to take their place in the community.

As for children desiring to enter professions requiring previous college training, it is possible sometimes for the institution to make this arrangement. Many institutions however find themselves incapable of meeting this expense. (# 102)

d. *Recommendations*. In view both of prevalent conditions in our institutions and of the principles underlying these conditions we may suggest the following recommendations:

- (1) For all normal children, a full eight-grade education, and of course any further schooling required by local law. In some states children are obliged by law to attend school beyond the eighth grade or up to a given age. By eight grades we here mean the eight elementary grades beyond kindergarten, classes being held five full days a week for nine months or forty weeks each year.
- (2) For children old enough and of normal intelligence, the advantages of high school education. Whether such high school education shall be along classical, technical, or business lines will naturally depend upon local educational provisions as well as upon the interests, abilities and vocational aims of the individual children. Under many conditions too it becomes advisable to encourage the child after finishing the elementary grades to enter a trade school

or to become in some other manner an apprentice for a skilled trade. This last point is dealt with a little later under vocational training.

- (3) For children who show exceptional capacity for and interest in higher studies, the advantages of college education, where conditions permit. It is obvious, of course, that financial and other conditions in many of our institutions make this third recommendation for the present at least, a counsel of perfection, in sharp contrast with the two previous recommendations. Nevertheless, the recommendation is not visionary or utopian by any means. It can often be carried out in some measure at least. And, in reality, some of our institutions (e.g., # 22, # 27, # 67, # 72, # 88; cf. # 201 cited above), through scholarships or other means, do provide for gifted children a college education fitting them for a profession.
- (4) As for the subnormal or notably retarded children, our institutional problem is very puzzling, so much so that it seems advisable to devote a special section of the present chapter to the problem.

2. RETARDATION AND MENTAL DEFECT

a. *Extent.* It is generally believed that the percentage of retarded mentally defective children in child-caring homes is higher than it is among the general school population. This belief may perhaps be justified, but objective statistical evidence is neither abundant nor conclusive. Davis' comparative study of a thousand children in orphanages of Texas and of five hundred Texas public school children of the same grades, showed 45% of the public school children mentally below age as against 73% of the orphanage children.

It did not prove feasible in the course of the present study to obtain such data on intelligence testing of institutional children as would warrant comparative conclusions. Data were however obtained from ten of the institutions on age-grade retardation. For purposes of comparison, the same ages are taken as normal as were taken in Strayer's study of 1911, namely, children six or seven years of age and in the first grade are classed as normal in age, as are those of seven or eight years of age in the second grade, or eight or nine years in the third grade, and so on.

Strayer's study made in 318 cities showed about a third of the children retarded a year or more. The total elementary school population of the ten institutions mentioned was 1394. Of these, 752 or 54% were of normal age or under, while 642 or 46% were over age, being retarded one year or more. The 1911 study showed very great differences from city to city in percentages of the retarded. So it would be unsafe to draw any final conclusions from the above differences of 13% in retardation between the average for the 318 cities and the average for the ten institutions studied. As regards five of the ten institutions, we have, from the 1911 study, data on the general school population in the respective cities in which these five institutions are located. Three of the five institutions show a retardation percentage averaging 10% under the average for these three cities; in one institution the average is about the same; in the fifth institution the average percentage of retardation is nearly 30% above the average for the city itself. Allowance has, however, to be made for changes that may have taken place in the respective cities since 1911. From these very inadequate findings it would be unsafe to draw any general conclusion as to the relative amount of retardation in institutions as compared with the percentage among the general school population.

One thing that tends to lower considerably the percentage of retardation among institutional children is the fact that in most institutions a high proportion of the children in the first and second grades are children who have been in the institution in their pre-school years and who have started their education at a relatively early age. If we eliminate the first and second grades from the statistical calculation of our ten institutions, the percentage of over-age children jumps at once from 46% to 54.5%.

Regardless, however, of relative percentages, it is quite clear that the percentage of retardation is high enough in the average institution to warrant the most serious attention. Of these retarded children, a considerable number are apt to be mentally defective as well.

b. *Retardation versus Mental Deficiency.* To what exact extent the percentage of retardation in institutions is due to mental defect proper and to what extent it is due to other factors cannot be satisfactorily determined in the present state of our evidence. Even

where intelligence tests are scientifically administered, as is being done in a number of our institutions, much care needs to be exercised lest children who make low scores be classified on this ground alone as mentally subnormal. The *very least* that we can expect and demand in our intelligence testing is that the tests themselves be given by trained experts and that the results of group intelligence tests be always checked up, in the cases of individuals scoring below normal, by *individual intelligence tests* given afterwards. For further security, such results need to be checked and re-checked by different experts at successive periods in the child's developmental career.

Moreover, every resource within our power must be called into play to determine through intensive study of the individual child whether physical, emotional and environmental factors have appreciably affected the child's scores. Institutional children often come from homes where parental neglect and carelessness or frequent moving has led to a marked retardation. One institution (# 72) for example, reports the case of a boy who had attended no less than nineteen schools in eighteen months! Eye, ear and other sensory or physical tests should be given to determine if retardation be due to bodily conditions.

Furthermore after this individual study has been completed, particularly in case of IQ's not far below the range of normal, special coaching and other common pedagogical devices for dealing with retardation should be tried out with the child in order to make sure that the case is one of mental defect proper rather than of mere retardation.

Even after all this has been done, in many cases where the IQ gotten is that of high-grade moron, borderline or dull-normal mentality, it is not possible to determine conclusively whether a given child is mentally defective or merely retarded. Scientific caution as well as human justice demand in any case that no child be classified among the mentally defective where any doubt, however slight, remains.

Inasmuch as the problem of retardation is distinctly a pedagogical one and hence one lying outside the scope of the present Manual, and inasmuch as in practice it is frequently very difficult to distinguish clearly between retardation and defect, we shall deal in the following paragraphs with the problem of the retarded-defective child-

dren as a unit, instead of separating the two groups as would be necessary in a technical pedagogical treatise.

c. *Methods in Use.* Ordinarily our institutions have no feeble-minded children of the imbecile level. Even the low-grade moron is more apt to be sent to a special institution, or not to be admitted to the ordinary child-caring institution. It seems to be pretty generally agreed among our Catholic institutions as elsewhere that the ordinary child-caring home is not equipped for dealing with very low grade feeble-minded children. The problem faced by the child-caring home is primarily that of the middle-grade moron and more particularly the high-grade moron up to the borderline and dull-normal types.

A vast amount of intensive study and experiment has been given to the solution of the problem of schooling for the mentally defective child. No completely satisfactory solution has been found, but out of this extensive experience some things are clear. So far as our institutions are concerned, here too experience has differed rather widely. There is no uniform plan in use. The plans that are actually in operation in our institutions are of three main types: special classes for backward children, special attention to the backward children in ordinary classes, and group divisions of classes.

(1) *Special Classes.* Four at least of the institutions that formerly had special classes for the backward children (# 11, # 66, # 68, # 80) later abandoned the plan. The institution did not find it possible, owing to the very intimate relations within the institution as compared with the less intimate relations under outside day-school conditions, to eliminate disparaging remarks and epithets aimed at the members of the ungraded class by the other children in the institution (# 66, # 68, # 80). One of the institutions too found that the isolation from the other children in the ungraded class tended to carry over into the play and other activities of the children (# 11). While these same drawbacks to the ungraded class often obtain in the ordinary day school, they do not obtain to the same degree as they do under the close and intimate relationships of institutional life.

On the other hand a number of our institutions (# 14, # 79, # 81, # 93, # 98) are operating under the ungraded class plan and feel that the advantages of the plan more than compensate for any possible drawbacks.

Children found especially backward as judged both by class records and by intelligence tests are grouped in a class of their own called the Preparatory Class. This Preparatory Class consists of the first, second and third grades and is assigned to a special teacher who gives the children grade work individually. (# 14)

In some institutions we have special classes for backward children who are given individual instruction in the subject or subjects in which they are retarded. These children on reaching their class level take their place in their regular class. The regular class children do not apparently bother about this distinction, attendance at the special class being taken as a matter of routine and its members being commented on neither favorably nor unfavorably. (# 201)

The Opportunity Class is composed of at most eight or ten children, of whom two or three may be mentally deficient. At first, there was a tendency among its members to develop inferiority feelings and among the other children to look down upon the ungraded class children. The sisters immediately took measures to solve the situation, by making clear to all that assignment to the class was neither a disgrace nor a punishment, but merely a measure to help along those who for one reason or another were unable to follow the regular class lessons. Since this first embarrassment, no further difficulty in this regard has been experienced. We felt and feel that the best means of overcoming the difficulty is the fostering of mutual charity among the children. In most cases the retarded children are found eager to reach their standard. (# 112)

For the good both of the retarded and defective children themselves and of the other children, the backward children are dealt with in special classes and are under the supervision of two sisters constantly. The plan has been in operation for the past two years and is working out well. The children are given, among other things, a good deal of manual training in handicrafts such as loom weaving, reed and raffia work, and so forth. The children enjoy the work, are happy in it, and attain splendid results. (# 79)

Children placed by the court receive preadmission mental examination as routine. Children accepted from other sources who have not had a mental examination receive one at the first opportunity after admission. The intelligence tests give the

sisters a better idea of what can be expected of the child. Meanwhile, after admission, all remedial measures are taken to clear up physical or other factors that may have been responsible for low scores. In addition, a grouping system with special individual attention and flexible curriculum is in force which helps very much to bring up to standard the children who are merely retarded. At the end of a year, or earlier if thought advisable in individual cases, a second test is given which serves as a re-check on progress or retardation. Children who are clearly mentally defective or who fail to make progress in the ordinary academic subjects are given a good deal of objective education. There is a special opportunity class, particularly for the girls from thirteen to sixteen years of age. They receive much instruction and practice in the various phases of domestic science from cooking and bed-making to actual child care in the nursery. There are classes, too, in hand weaving, rug making and scarf making, basketry, and so forth. (# 81)

The fact that the opportunity or special class is being carried out successfully in some institutions proves that the chief obstacles to its success are not insuperable. There are three such obstacles in the institution: disparaging remarks to or about the members of the special class by the other children; the feeling of isolation that may and sometimes does carry over into play and other activities; the hazard of intensifying inferiority complexes in the members of the class. On the other hand, the plan for the special class is better for the normal children, inasmuch as they are not held back by the slower and more backward pupils. It is better for the deficient children themselves, for when they are in their own class they can be given more in the way of objective or manual education by which they can profit, and from which they can get the thrill and stimulus that come from tasks skilfully and successfully accomplished. Moreover, they are more readily encouraged by such progress as they can make, and are less apt to be discouraged by remaining tailenders in an ordinary class. Finally, they can progress at their own rate without being forced too rapidly. These are some of the chief advantages of the opportunity class, although there are of course others. To sum up: the advantages are clear and great; the hazards, such as they are, can with tact be avoided, at least in part.

(2) *Special Attention within the Ordinary Grade Classes.*

This plan is also in use in some of our institutions. The following are illustrations:

The backward children are grouped within the ordinary classes but are given a good deal of coaching outside of regular school hours. (# 7)

The backward children are in class with the other children but are given special drill work while the normal children are having busy periods in composition, drawing, and so forth. (# 11)

Children who register low on the intelligence tests are given special attention during study hour. (# 25)

The plan under which the backward children are kept in the regular classes, with special coaching or tutoring during or after class, during home-study hour, or during summer school, avoids automatically, in part at least, the three real even though avoidable obstacles that may arise in the opportunity class. On the other hand, the tutoring plan obviously lacks some of the most important values of the opportunity class. The stimulus to effort, such as may come from association with brighter or more advanced children in the regular classes, can be provided as well in a good opportunity class through competition with equals.

(3) *Group Divisions.* Some institutions prefer the plan of dividing or sub-grouping the grades.

The children in given grades are arranged in three or four groups, each group proceeding at its own speed. Under this plan the backward children are fitted in more or less inconspicuously with the least able of the three or four groups within the grade. (# 66)

In some of our schools, where numbers and sisters permit, the classes are divided into three divisions according to the customary group plan. Somewhat the same type of handling is required as is needed in teaching a class containing three grades. The three-group plan approximates in some respects the ungraded class, yet differs materially from it. (# 201)

There is one class which ranks as a first grade and in which

the children are divided into four groups. Among these four groups is one group, the first, which is standard, equaling in mental level and class work the ordinary first-grade group. A modified kindergarten method is in use, particularly with the second, third and fourth sub-groups. The teacher in charge of the class is specially equipped for the work. No serious problems of discipline arise. The three chief policies carried out by her are the following. First and most important, praise in season and out of season, wherever it is possible to do so at all, but neither coax nor threaten nor be impatient. Secondly, never let the backward child think he is mentally deficient. Thirdly, check or prevent anything like ridicule on the part of the other children. The teacher recognizes clearly that the plan does not solve all problems, but she feels that, all things considered, it meets the situation in this particular institution at least, better than the special class. Such a class had been previously organized, but was later given up, for the reasons outlined in the above discussion of special classes. (# 68)

The sub-group system is in fairly common use in the day schools of the country. It permits considerable flexibility and makes allowance not only for the slightly subnormal types of children but also for the normal and supernormal. Something more is required perhaps in the way of pedagogical skill to keep the three groups going, each at its own speed. Under this system the definitely deficient do not, it is true, fit in with complete ease and smoothness, but there is less of an hiatus between the ability of the borderline or very high-grade moron and that of the lowest of the three sub-groups than there is between that of the subnormal and that of the normal or supernormal child.

In the present study we have not found any of our institutions using the Dalton, Winnetka or similar plans of individual instruction. It is quite outside our province to discuss and evaluate these plans as such. The possibilities, however, of such plans or modifications thereof for the solution of the problem of retardation and mental deficiency and of some other institutional problems may be well worth studying and testing on the part of our institutions.

(4) *Variants.* The following plans are seemingly exceptional, if we may judge from the present study. They are in a sense reducible to one or other of the three foregoing types, but have certain

special characteristics. They are consequently being classified here as variants.

All of the children go to school outside the institution except the first and second grade children and certain backward children. The backward children remain in the same classrooms with the first and second graders. Small groups within the grades are taken in turn for special work. (# 55)

The dull and backward children are sent to a well-conducted continuation school outside, where, in addition to elementary academic subjects, they learn a good deal of cooking, sewing, handcraft work, and so forth. (# 27)

Backward children are placed in what is known as the Preparatory Class, a graded class, held in a separate class room. As each child is able to make his grade, he is promoted to the regular class room. Individual attention is given to each child in the subject or subjects in which he is most backward. This class is sometimes continued during the summer months in order to help the children make their grades. This plan, like the following one, deals more with the problem of retardation than of mental deficiency, but is flexible enough to handle at least some of the latter cases with as much success as can be reasonably expected. (# 14)

A special class has recently been organized for coaching the children who are retarded. The children remain in the class for a period of one month to three. The organization of the special class has helped eliminate discouragement on the part of the retarded children and to build up within them the sense of achievement. A certain amount of special coaching can be and is given through this special retardant class to children who are mentally a little under normal. (# 88)

In the two immediately preceding instances, the special class is intended primarily for the child of normal intelligence who happens to be retarded in one or more subjects. It has been found possible to fit some of the slightly deficient children into such a special coaching class.

This very rapid survey of the measures in actual use in our institutions must end where it began, with the statement that an *entirely* satisfactory solution of the educational problem of the mentally de-

ficient, whether in institutions or outside thereof, has not yet been worked out. Some real progress has however been made. Whether or not a complete solution will come with further study and experiment, time alone can tell. In the meanwhile, in view of experience both within and outside of institutions, and in view particularly of the experience within our Catholic institutions, we may offer with all due reserve the following recommendations.

d. *Recommendations.* (1) Routine mental examinations for all children on entrance are advised. It goes without saying that all possible care and caution, both in giving and in interpreting the tests and in the use made thereof, should be observed. During the present study we have found eighteen of the institutions making normal use of intelligence tests quite apart from the larger number that are using achievement tests. In nine of these eighteen institutions, the tests are optional, while in the other nine they are routine for all children on admission. It would be unfortunate if, in the increasing number of our institutions that are using intelligence tests, these tests should be looked upon as final criteria. On the other hand, if the results are used as they should be used, namely, as clues and symptoms, they have many values for the institution. So far as their educational value is concerned, they at least give some preliminary indication of what may be reasonably expected of a given child and thus they serve as a guide in grading the child and discovering what standards of achievement may be required of him. To give a child work that is too easy for him with his particular ability is apt to be just as disastrous as expecting from him more than can reasonably be expected with his given ability. Each child should be given tasks that will elicit maximum healthy mental tension, and that will bring out the best in him according to his individual capacity.

(2) So far as the mentally deficient child is concerned, it may be urged that less be required from him in the ordinary academic subjects than from the normal child, and that he be given more training and experience in educational activities of a manual and objective rather than of an academic type. Domestic science, handcraft work, simple work with tools, these and kindred types of activities need to be provided liberally for the subnormal child. Both his interests and abilities run more toward "things" than toward books. It is commonly found that, unless mentality be extremely low, the

subnormal child takes kindly to such activities, is keenly interested in them, and succeeds quite well therein,—and this in the case of children who make little or no headway in book work or in ordinary academic subjects.

(3) As regards choice between the three above mentioned methods of handling the subnormal child in his school work,—special classes, special attention within ordinary classes, sub-grouping of classes,—we do not feel that it is possible, in the present state of our experience and evidence, to recommend as finally and universally best any one of the three measures in preference to the other two. The special class seems, it is true, to avoid the worst difficulties of the situation, and to lend itself more readily to educational activities adapted to the subnormal child. It would further seem that, so far as disparaging remarks on the part of other children are concerned, tact and training can overcome this obstacle. Here indeed is a challenge to any institution. If religion is to carry over into daily life, as religion must do, here is an excellent test of what our religious and moral training means. It is recognized, however, that local conditions may make it unwise or impossible to organize special classes, and that, for the time being at least, it may be more advisable in many institutions to use one of the other two methods suggested above.

3. SUMMER SCHOOL

a. *Prevalent Conditions.* Experience with summer-school sessions and summer classes has differed widely in our institutions, as does actual practice. A number of institutions have summer-school plans in operation. In some cases such schooling amounts merely to a short period from an hour to an hour and a half each morning, during which period the children do embroidery or sewing, make doll clothes, or engage in simple art or craft work. In other cases the summer school is conducted under a more formal class plan with drill in academic subjects. In one institution (# 67) there are no classes proper, but there is a short period for study or reading each morning. Again, in some of the institutions summer school lasts throughout practically all of the summer period, closing only a short time before the opening of the fall session, while in other institutions the summer session is limited to five or six weeks, usually running through July and the early part of August.

Whether or not summer classes should be held depends on local conditions. The custom of holding summer classes is so common now outside institutions that we find our children take summer school as a matter of course. In institutions that have no rural summer home, we find it well to have half-day classes. The children appear happier because of this minimum definite occupation and the strain on them is not heavy. When picnics or excursions are arranged, classes are omitted. In institutions that have summer homes, both plans, with and without summer classes, seem to be equally in favor. In no case, however, is the rule for class an ironclad one, nor are lessons allowed to interfere with either regular or unforeseen recreation. Nor does the standard school-year discipline prevail in the summer school. We do not find that summer school diminishes zest for return to regular class work in September. (# 201)

b. *Pros and Cons.* Some of the institutions are definitely opposed to the summer school plan (e.g., # 27, # 64, # 68, # 81). It is felt that summer time is the children's play time, that if a full recreational program is in operation the children will be kept busy, and that after a complete change during the summer months they return to school in the fall with more zest. In one institution (# 68) the summer school formerly in vogue was given up because of the attitude on the part of even the better and abler children that inasmuch as children outside the institution did not go to summer school it was not fair to expect them to go. It was found too in the same institution that under the summer school plan the children entered on the plan reluctantly and went back to school in the fall with little enthusiasm. After the abolition of the summer school the children started the fall session with eagerness.

It may be further urged that a complete suspension of classes either for the whole summer or at least for a very large or major part of it, is of distinct value to the teachers themselves, as it gives them a rest from the strenuous and trying duties of the classroom, increases their own zest for the reopening of school, and provides them with an opportunity for attendance at their own summer school sessions.

On the other hand, there are certain advantages in an informal type of summer school. Even where there is an excellent recreational program the children may tire of play, and a little class work

not only keeps them employed and out of mischief but also serves as a foil for the otherwise full play day. Moreover, the summer session can be used for prevocational training. Furthermore, a good deal can be done during the summer session to coach individual children or whole classes that are retarded. It gives an opportunity for tutoring and for special class drill in weak points. It also gives gifted children a chance to develop their talents.

In the light of the varying experience of our institutions, the Conference does not feel that it can with confidence recommend either the inauguration or omission of the summer school as a policy of universal application. The pros and cons seem pretty evenly divided, and furthermore experience in the institutions has been very far from uniform. Two recommendations may, however, be suggested, in case the summer-school plan is in operation. First, advantage may be taken of the summer school to coach retardant individuals or groups. Secondly, it is generally advisable to throw the emphasis in summer-school activities, as is done in a good many of the institutions, upon the development of such things as taste for good reading, art, nature study and craft work. Individual and group projects in these and other fields help much both to train and attract the children and to tap their real interests. Such activities have less of an academic atmosphere and so are less apt to dampen enthusiasm for the fall opening of school, while at the same time they keep the children busy and serve in some measure to keep them from becoming surfeited with play.

4. ATTENDANCE AT OUTSIDE SCHOOLS

a. *Prevalent Conditions.* In forty-two of the institutions studied, that is, in practically all that have children of high school age, the advantages of high school education are provided for those who are old enough and sufficiently advanced. Of these forty-two institutions, thirty provide for attendance at outside high schools. In other words, nearly three-fourths of these institutions provide high school education outside the institution.

As for elementary education, the conditions are somewhat different. The great majority of our institutions provide schooling up to and including the eighth grade on the institution grounds. Fifteen of the institutions studied arrange for some or all of the grades

to attend local day schools outside the institution. In some institutions (# 1, # 13, # 82), the children go outside for all eight grades; in two (# 55, # 59), they attend outside schools from the third grade up; in one (# 83), from the fourth grade up; in another (# 27), from the sixth grade up; in five (# 20, # 24, # 25, # 57, # 88), from the seventh grade up; and in three (# 44, # 48, # 98), from the eighth grade up.

In a few of the institutions some classes go to outside schools, either for prevocational work such as sewing and manual training (# 30, # 68), or for vocational training to trade schools, (# 29, # 54, # 131).

b. *Discussion of Policy.* To judge from the present study, the policy of sending the children out for some or all of their schooling would appear to be gaining decidedly in favor among our institutions. Certain problems are no doubt raised by the policy, but these problems have been quite satisfactorily solved in the large number of institutions that are following the policy.

Ordinarily the children going out to high school or, as in some cases, to grade school, go singly, or in twos or threes, just as they would from their own homes. The general experience has been that no appreciable misconduct situations have arisen in connection with this plan, apart from very minor and negligible matters which are commonplaces even among the best children in the best private homes.

The problem of midday luncheon is provided for in one of the institutions (# 42) by having the small group who go out to high school take their lunch with them and by giving them a hot dinner when they return immediately after school in the afternoon. Most high schools provide hot lunches at very moderate prices, or a hot dinner can be served the children as the evening meal.

The other main problem that presents itself is that of overcrowding the nearby elementary or high school. Where the institution is very small or where there is a city-wide or diocesan high school, this problem does not arise. In some other cases the problem may become acute. It has however been met in some institutions by having the children distributed among several schools (# 11, # 55). Three at least of the institutions studied (# 14, # 29, # 57) pay a modest sum to the nearby school to cover the basic costs

of children sent outside. The financial arrangements differ considerably in accordance with local conditions. In some cases, for instance, the institution and the nearby grade or high school are conducted by the same order of sisters or are connected with the parish or directly under diocesan supervision. In these cases the question of finance usually involves no problem to speak of.

As an illustration of both the problems and the advantages of having the children go outside may be given the experience of one of our child-caring homes that only recently inaugurated the policy as an experiment.

To test out the policy by experiment, the fifth and eighth grade children were chosen as they were the smaller groups and were more readily accepted by the nearby parochial school. The eighth grade children had been accustomed to a good deal of individual attention in a very small class within the institution, and on being introduced into a considerably larger class missed this attention. With both groups there was a little trouble at first due to their coming in at unaccustomed hours for their meals, but before the year was up this situation had been very satisfactorily adjusted. The superior feels that it is much more normal for children to go out to school and that through their attendance at the parochial school they gain distinctly from outside contacts. The children before school come up to the sisters and want to know if they look all right and so forth, just as children would do in their own homes. There is always a bit of ceremony, as it were, on leave-taking in the morning and on returning in the afternoon. This particular institution closed last year after this one-year experiment, but would have continued the policy, as the advantages appeared to outweigh greatly any slight disadvantages involved. (# 130)

The chief advantages of the outside-school plan may be summed up as follows. The policy is, however, an important and far-reaching one, and this listing of values is not necessarily exhaustive.

- (1) The children are taken out of their isolation, lose something of the feeling of "differentness", and by rubbing shoulders with other children in the world on the same level are less apt to be afflicted with a sense of inferiority.

The children from the sixth grade through high school go to outside schools,—ten to high school, twenty-two to junior high, and eight to continuation school for the backward. The children from the home are allowed and encouraged to take full part in all activities in the outside schools. The institution does all it can to have the children different in no way from the other children. Many have been made officers of the classes and have received honors in the various curricular and extra-curricular activities. For instance, of the twenty-two students attending the junior high, six have received the school letter which is awarded to honor students. To receive this honor they must have attained at least 80% in their scholastic record, twenty points in their social record, and an average of at least B in their physical and moral record. One of the twenty-two boys is the only one in his class who has received this honor. Four of the boys are presidents of their respective classes, one is vice-president, one a secretary, and two others are ushers. (# 27)

- (2) By going out to school the children increase appreciably their outside contacts, and such outside schooling approximates much more closely the conditions under which the normal child lives in his own home.

No classes are taught at the institution above the sixth grade. This policy has been adopted with the definite purpose of having the institution children mix with other children and of having them get the same kind of contacts they would have if living at home. (# 25)

- (3) Going out to school brings the children a change of scene, of environment, and of associations. It is the experience of many institutions that under this policy the children are more interested in school, are less apt to be bored by school tasks, and, in general, are happier and more contented.
- (4) Sending the children out to school, solves what is frequently a very difficult administrative and financial problem for the institution, namely, that of securing adequate equipment and trained teaching personnel. With the present demands everywhere for teachers in our elementary and secondary schools, teaching orders are commonly hard

put to provide adequate staffs. Institutions frequently find it very hard to secure adequate personnel for elementary classes. Still more difficult is it usually to provide personnel and equipment for the high school grades. Furthermore, as every one in institution work knows, most of the children in most institutions leave before they reach high school age. The problem then may be formulated as one of providing under great difficulties a rather elaborate personnel and equipment for a very small number of children. Sending the children out goes very far towards solving this grave administrative and financial problem.

In view of the fact that the ordinary problems raised can be solved quite readily in practice, and of the fact that the advantages of outside schooling are so important and far-reaching, the Conference feels that it can with much confidence cordially recommend, where local facilities at all permit, the sending of children out to school, at least for the high school grades, and, to the extent locally feasible, for the elementary grades, or some of them. In the majority of our institutions in the South the policy is no recent innovation but one of long standing. In more recent years the policy has been spreading very rapidly in our northern and western institutions. It is obvious that in some localities the policy, so far at least as elementary grade children are concerned, is not feasible for our Catholic institutions. On the other hand there is little question that in the majority of our institutions, with a little planning and adjustment, it can easily be put into practice, at least to some degree. If we may judge from the experience of the institutions that have more recently inaugurated the policy, it would seem wiser in practice to introduce the plan gradually, grade by grade or class by class, rather than too abruptly.

Where it is not found possible at all to have any of the children go outside for classes, experience has been that a *separate school building* is in many respects preferable to class rooms located under the same roof with living and sleeping quarters. It is true that in very inclement weather there is some advantage in having the class rooms within the same building as the living quarters, but such days are quite exceptional. Millions of children go out to school in all kinds of weather from family homes, and probably are the better

physically, for the hardening they thereby get. All in all, only in one day out of fifty is the weather so bad as to be a real drawback during the minute or two-minute walk to the separate school building. An illustration of some of the advantages,—there are others,—of the separate school building is given in the following excerpt.

The child looks upon his social or living room as his home. The sisters have noticed a very marked improvement since the separate school building was erected. Going to and from it has given them a little more outdoor life. But most of all it has given institutional life a little more of the atmosphere of home life. Children talk more about going home and going to school, and this has made the social rooms, which were formerly used for school rooms as well, mean much more to them. (# 67)

If it be advisable or necessary under local conditions to have the educational program carried out on the institution grounds, then it is incumbent upon the institution, of course, to give the child the equal of the best that could be given outside the institution. A detailed expansion of this general principle which is recognized in all our institutions is not, however, called for in the present Manual, as this lies within the pedagogical field proper, from which for practical purposes we are keeping aloof. We may merely add here some excerpts as follows from the Sisters' Conference's 1923 Program for Catholic Childcaring Homes:

"The classrooms should be planned for school purposes, should be well-ventilated and the desks so placed that the light will come from the left side. Desks and seats should be of the modern, adjustable type, and the blackboards placed at the proper height for the children. Modern text books, maps and other classroom aids should be provided.

"Each school should have a principal to direct the course of study and to supervise the teaching. Where a diocesan superintendent plans the course it should be followed. The principal should insist that each teacher keep plan and progress books, and should hold conferences or staff meetings monthly to discuss the work of the school and educational problems. To promote cooperation between the 'home' and school, the principal

should invite the Group Mothers to these meetings. They will then be able to give more intelligent assistance to their little charges in the preparation of their home work.

"The teachers [in the elementary grades] ought to be high school graduates with a modern pedagogical training. In classes where only one grade is present there may be thirty-five pupils, and where there are two grades not more than forty. Classes should be held five hours a day, five days a week, for forty weeks each year." (p. 14).

5. STUDY PERIODS

The study period in our institutions averages about one hour daily, frequently with a shorter period or none at all for children below the third or fourth grade, and with periods totaling in some places, two hours or more for older children of high school age. The ordinary time for the study period is after supper on week-day evenings. Commonly the study period is omitted on Friday evening, and a Sunday morning or evening study hour substituted. One institution (# 112) reports finding the after-supper study period unsatisfactory as the children are then tired, but we have not found this objection a common one.

Apparently the study period is more commonly held in the class rooms, although in some of the institutions the group living room, the library, or a special study hall is used. In some cases the high school students study in the library, and in two or three instances in their own single rooms or cubicles.

Supervision of the study period is more commonly under the class-room teacher, although in some cases the group mothers or others have charge. There are obvious advantages in having the class-room teachers supervise the home work of the children. From this standpoint the institution has a real advantage over the day school, in fact in many cases a very great advantage. The following excerpts may serve as an illustration of some of the more common policies in vogue and of the reasons therefor.

Children prepare their homework in their own class rooms in the evening between 6:30 and 7:30 under the supervision of their respective class-room teachers who assist them whenever

they get into difficulties. Formerly the children had their study hour in their group living rooms. This proved however a little too much of a temptation to leave their books. Moreover they were not as diligent as was desirable and the group mother was not as well qualified to oversee the study period as is the teacher. (# 14)

6. EDUCATIONAL EXCURSIONS

Visits to local art galleries, museums, zoos, public buildings, historical spots, stores, industries, and so forth, are an integral feature of our modern educational system. Such excursions are valuable for all children. They are particularly valuable for the institutional child, as they increase outside contacts, make the children more familiar with the community in which they live, and give them useful and cultural information and experience. It is a very common custom in our institutions to organize such educational excursions as a normal part of the educational program.

Ordinarily on such excursions the group is accompanied by the teacher. In some cases however the responsibility is undertaken by members of Aid Societies or of other organizations associated officially or unofficially with the institution.

Somewhat akin to such excursions from the educational standpoint is attendance on the part of the children at notable local events, such as historical and commemorative occasions, centenaries, and so forth. There is much, too, to be said for the following plan, mentioned, it is true, in only one of the reports, but probably of wide distribution in our institutions.

In each classroom there is a bulletin board on which are posted notices of current events, in order to help keep the classroom children in touch with history in the making. (# 79)

Particularly valuable, in line with the foregoing practices, is that of correlating general geography and history with local geography and history, and of teaching the latter to the children through excursions to local historic spots and of giving them a better grasp of general geography through personal field study and mapping of the geography of their particular locality. Most institutions have excellent opportunities for such field study.

7. READING AND LIBRARY

Of reading and the use of the library in connection with class work proper nothing will be said in this section, as this is a pedagogical problem. We are here concerned with leisure-time and extra-curricular reading and library use. The obvious educational and recreational values of such reading are well recognized and need not detain us. The real problem is that of encouraging and coaching the children to do an adequate amount of desirable reading. This problem is partly one of giving personal counsel and coaching, partly one of providing the facilities and opportunity for reading.

a. *Counseling and Coaching.* Various plans are in vogue for providing such counsel and guidance in the matter of reading. In one institution (# 11), for instance, emphasis is put on this point in the summer school. In some institutions, hours for reading are set aside each week. In other cases, much coaching is done by the classroom teacher to encourage the children to read more desirable types of books. In one institution (# 66) at least, particularly good books are recommended from time to time by the chaplain from the altar. It is commonly found that the children themselves do a good deal of mutual coaching and counseling.

b. *Providing Facilities.* Facilities for reading include two things: a *supply of good reading material*, and *easy access thereto*. The following excerpts illustrate plans, one in a cottage institution, the other in a congregate.

About a thousand books are borrowed from the local public library. These may be kept a year but actually they are changed about every three months. They are distributed to the classrooms and cottages. Each classroom teacher is responsible for the books in her own classroom. Each boy has his own card on which he takes out books from the classroom collection, his teacher giving them out and keeping the records. The boy is permitted either to keep the books on his desk or to take them to his cottage. Most of the books are taken by the boys to their cottage, particularly over Saturday and Sunday. Under this card plan, not a single one of the borrowed books was lost last year. One, at least, of the school teachers makes it a practice to read to the boys from some book for

about fifteen minutes each day just before noon in order to stimulate in them the taste for doing their own reading outside.

In each cottage there is a small library room just off the main living room. Here are found some of the loan books together with a good collection of books belonging to the institution. The loan books in the cottage libraries circulate by card, while the books therein belonging to the institution are taken out by the boys without cards. The cottage library books are kept in closed bookcases, which however are never locked. Institution books in the cottages are stamped with the name of the cottage, and if they chance to stray to other cottages, as sometimes occurs, they are returned to the cottage to which they belong. Beyond, however, a little straying of this kind, no problem of loss of books ever arises from this free use of them. The boys take the books out and put them back again freely, very much as they would do in their own homes. On dropping in at one of the cottages one evening during the course of the field study, the visitor found one boy in the library room browsing among the books, three reading on chairs and the settee in the living room, and two others stretched flat on the floor reading by the light of the floor lamp. In addition to the loan and cottage libraries, there are working libraries in the class rooms, containing the customary reference works. There is no general library. (# 66)

The institution library is divided into three major sections: the staff library, the school library, the general library for the boys. The general library and reading room is beautifully equipped, with the walls tiffanied in light green and the ceiling beams and all woodwork in dark mission-style oak. Radiator seats are placed on the long low-type window radiators. Tables, chairs, pillows, ferns, flowers and bookcases make up the equipment. Quietude is the only restraint placed on the boys. The boys may be found at any time browsing among the shelves for desired reading matter or reading on the floor with their heads propped on their palms. The library itself contains a very large collection of boys' books belonging to the institution. Forty-two magazines and newspapers are received, both religious and secular, in fact pretty nearly every magazine which is good for boys to read. Old magazines which are sent to the institution as donations are used in paper cutting and poster work. (# 72)

(1) *The Books.* Most of the institutions studied have excellent supplies of books and periodicals suitable for children. In some it is felt that the indiscriminate reading of newspapers is not best for the child, and consequently a certain amount of clipping is done, the children being given just the sport or other sections that are of more interest to them. On the other hand some institutions put the newspapers at the disposal of the children without such previous "censoring", on the principle that they will have to discriminate in newspaper reading sooner or later and they might as well begin when the learning can be done under wise direction. It has been the experience of some institutions at least that while donations of books and magazines are good, nevertheless one cannot rely on such donations to build up a really satisfactory library for children. One institution (# 55) finds it possible to economize and at the same time select its books well by purchasing some of its reading matter at second hand.

The sister superior endeavored to interest various individuals and groups in building up the institution library through donations, but she found this procedure very unsatisfactory as the books and magazines donated were nearly always useless. She finds that the more satisfactory way is to purchase the books by degrees as finances permit. (# 11, # 112)

A great number of our institutions (e.g., # 14, # 18, # 42, # 66, # 68, # 71, # 86) arrange with the local public library to obtain selected loan collections for periods ranging from a month to a year. The plan has seemingly worked out very satisfactorily in all the institutions that are using it. Its advantages are obvious.

A great many of the institutions (e.g., # 20, # 42, # 55, # 72, # 79, # 81, # 88) encourage the children to get individual circulation cards for the outside public libraries. In some institutions this privilege is granted only to the children of high school age. In others, it is granted to the younger children as well, as far down at least as the third grade. The distance to the public library may be so great in some cities that this plan is not feasible. Where, however, it is practicable, it may be cordially recommended. Going to the public library is very much more like what the child living at home does. It moreover gives the institutional child helpful outside experience and contacts, and familiarizes him with a valuable

community resource to be used by him after leaving the institution. In the course of the study we have gotten no reports of any problems arising as a result of the plan.

(2) *Accessibility.* As a general principle, the more readily accessible the books are to the children, the greater the encouragement that is given to their reading. Local conditions may be such that the children can be granted access to the library only at certain hours. Where however they have access at any hour during leisure time (e.g., # 66, # 112), better results are ordinarily attainable. Again, it may be quite necessary under given local conditions to have the children take out books from the library only by card. This is particularly the case where there is one general library. It may, moreover, be advisable in such a case to limit the period of circulation just as is done in public libraries. Where however there are group or cottage libraries, it is much easier and more homelike to leave the children free to browse around among the books in the cases and to take them out at pleasure without the formality of record keeping or of cards.

8. INSTITUTION OPPORTUNITIES

The handicaps under which the institution suffers in the matter of education are well known to all those engaged in the work. An outstanding one is, for instance, the high turnover in the institution population. As partially offsetting these handicaps, however, the institution, as compared with the day school, has valuable superior opportunities both for correlation and for individualization.

a. *Correlation.* Under our modern industrial civilization, the four great educative agencies that mould the child,—home, church, school and community,—have to a very large extent drifted apart. Parents commonly know little of schools as teachers commonly know little of the homes from which their pupils come. Furthermore, with the departure of recreation from the home, the community influences impinging on the child, particularly during his leisure hours, are in the main uncontrolled either by home or by school. Yet it is obvious that if we desire the best education for the child, all these forces must work together cooperatively. Parent-teachers associations, visiting teacher work, and a number of other plans are bringing home, church, school and community together in teamwork for

the education of the child, but, as we all know, only a beginning has been made.

In a very real sense, the institution has a splendid opportunity for correlating these various influences in the all-round training of the children within its walls. Religious, educational and recreational activities are closely associated within the institution under a common unified leadership. Furthermore, during the period of the children's residence at the institution the staff stand to them in the place of parents. The conditions therefore are such that teamwork on the part of the chief agencies that educate and mould the child can be more readily secured than it can be outside the institution. Given the handicaps under which the institution has to work, every advantage should be taken of the favorable situation in which it finds itself as regards this particular problem of correlation and teamwork.

b. *Individualization.* It is recognized in educational circles that while mass education is in large measure a necessity under our present educational conditions, nevertheless individualized education is the ideal. Many experiments are being tried in our parochial and public school systems, looking towards more individualized types of teaching. If we are to have such individualized education, we must have detailed knowledge of the individual child. Much of this detailed knowledge of the individual child is obtained by the institution through its preadmission physical and mental examinations as well as through its entrance examinations and re-examinations. Furthermore, the institution operates on a twenty-four hour basis, with the staff in close personal contact with the children, not only in classroom, but also in church, on the playground, in living and sleeping quarters, throughout in fact the whole round of the child's daily activities. The institution staff is, therefore, favorably situated for obtaining detailed knowledge of and clearer insight into the individual child. In this respect at least it is in a favorable position for individualizing the child not only in general training but also in the more limited field of academic or intellectual training. For instance, it is important for teachers to know the general health conditions of their pupils, to have accurate information upon each child's keenness or dullness of sight and hearing, as well as upon the general mental level of the child as suggested by intelligence tests and other evidence. With this knowledge, the teacher can make many adjustments look-

ing towards better individual training for her children and knows better what she can expect from each one. Again, in view of the fact that academic progress is largely promoted or checked by behavior trends and character traits, the institution teacher, who is favorably situated for obtaining a more thorough knowledge of the character traits of her children, is insofar better equipped for her intellectual tasks of the classroom.

A still wider field and opportunity may perhaps lie before the institution. We have referred above to the many most interesting and promising experiments that are being made in both the parochial and the public school systems looking towards basic changes for the better in curriculum and methods. The general direction of these changes is away from mass education and towards more individualized education. It is beyond our scope to enter here into this technical pedagogical field. Institutional schools, as more or less integral parts of diocesan or public school systems, are under the necessity of conforming to the broader policies of these systems. On the other hand, a great deal of freedom and leeway is usually left to the individual school. Within this wide margin of freedom, there are splendid opportunities for developing a more individualized type of education.

Some very interesting recent experiments in this field at three of our child-caring institutions on the Pacific coast are described in some detail in the Proceedings of the Thirteenth National Conference of Catholic Charities (1927, pp. 365-70). As this paper is easily accessible, the reader is referred to it for details. It may merely be suggested here that the only reasonable prospect of a really satisfactory solution of the educational problem presented by the gifted as well as by the subnormal child would seem to lie in some such basic readjustment of curricula and administration, away from mass education adapted to the average child and toward individualized education adapted to the varying capabilities of the individual children.

B. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Education in its broadest sense prepares the child for independent living at maturity. Economic independence is one phase of general independence. One of the several main objectives of education

is training the child for such economic independence or self-support. But mere self-support is not all. If talents are not to be wasted, then it is a task of education to train the child for the vocations in life in which he can put to best and fullest use the talents which God has entrusted to him.

In most institutions the children stay but a short period that ranges more commonly from a year to three years. Moreover the very great majority of children leave the institution while they are still in grade-school years. It is obvious that in most institutions very little can be done in the way of vocational education proper. Such training for life tasks as can be given is ordinarily prevocational. On the other hand, in most cases a small minority of the children remain in the institution well into the middle teens, while in some few institutions it is customary to permit the children to remain therein up to the late teens and almost to maturity.

Given these general conditions the problem of vocational education in our institutions may be dealt with under two broad headings: prevocational training, and vocational education proper. It is understood of course that it is not always possible to draw a sharp line in given cases between the one and the other. Theoretically as good a division as any between the two types is indicated in the following very rough definitions. Vocational education is specialized training for a vocation that has already been chosen by an individual. Prevocational education is such training as may help the child through experience and tryout to choose wisely the vocation for which he is best fitted. It is in these senses that we are using the two terms in the present section.

I. PREVOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Under the heading of prevocational education come primarily the courses in manual training. We may also include such training in the domestic sciences as is given to our institutional children, although education in the household arts and skills is in one sense within the field of vocational education proper, inasmuch as it prepares for the basic vocation of home-making.

All of our institutions give a greater or lesser amount of such manual and domestic training, either as an integral part of the school curriculum, or as incidental to household chores and leisure-time ac-

tivities, or both. So far as manual training is concerned, this differs very much from institution to institution, running the gamut from carpentry, plumbing and auto-repairing to farming, dairying, and gardening. It does not appear necessary to enter in the present Manual into the details of the prevocational courses. Such courses may and do serve in a measure as tryout or exploratory ones, in some cases giving the child or his counsellor light upon individual interests and capacities. But in the main their values are of a general educational nature rather than of a vocational one, and so the subject falls more within the field of technical pedagogy. Instead therefore of entering into the details of types and methods of prevocational courses, we may be content with indicating certain general principles and policies that are suggested by our institutional experience, or that are of more special application to institutional conditions.

a. For children of normal mentality domestic and manual training is in no sense a substitute for elementary academic school work. The full eight grades followed on a full-time basis are a fundamental requirement for all children who have the ability to complete them. Again, children educated in an institution where domestic or manual training would be largely substituted for regular academic subjects would be seriously handicapped when they left the institution and entered outside day schools. It is understood of course that if in the upper two or three elementary grades the child shows marked lack of interest in academic subjects and marked interest in manual activities, and if ordinary methods of investigation and testing show the child to be more motorminded, there should be no objection to giving him a little more of domestic and manual training than is given to the average child. Again, for children who are definitely subnormal in mentality, it may be both advisable and necessary to substitute domestic and manual training to a considerable extent for the ordinary academic subjects. In fact, it may be distinctly advisable for such cases to get local and state authorities to waive rigid requirements and to permit the institution to substitute in part domestic and manual training for the usual academic subjects. This fits the school to the child instead of fitting the child to the school. So far however as the normal child is concerned, the proportion of domestic and manual training in the curriculum should be so kept

down as not to interfere with the child's progress in the elementary academic subjects. It need hardly be added that the educational needs of the child demand that he be never taken out of class to perform household chores.

b. Equipment for adequate manual training courses is apt to be expensive. It would seem advisable therefore, as is done in some institutions, to arrange for the children to follow such courses in outside high schools or junior high schools, where the institution cannot afford its own manual training equipment and personnel.

c. Children should be expected to take some part in the everyday household tasks in the institution, just as they would do in their own homes. The tasks, however, that require practically nothing in the way of skill, ought to be largely turned over, if finances permit, to paid employees. If however the children are called upon to perform such tasks, these should be changed quite frequently. Household chores as such should, to the fullest extent possible, be made the medium for training in domestic arts and skills. To make such training effective, instruction in and rotation of tasks are advisable, and, in tasks that require a greater amount of skill, sufficient time should be allowed the child to learn them well and thoroughly.

d. Training in domestic science should, it is recognized, include the whole field,—all phases of home making that concern food, clothing and shelter, and last but not least, child care. It is well, too, when training children in the domestic arts to give them a taste of real responsibility in practicing these arts.

The girls are taught sewing from the fourth grade up. The older girls also receive thorough training in household management, including the care of children, practice in which last they get through a three-month course in the institution nursery. (# 29)

Domestic science is taught as part of the curriculum particularly in the high-school grades. Two of the girls assist every noon and two every night in cooking the meals, each girl having a turn about once a week. During their turn on duty, they are permitted to make the things they have learned to make at school. In this way they have the same opportunity that girls would have in their own homes to try out what they have been taught. (# 27)

The course in domestic science is under the direction of a professional teacher. The institution has excellent class equipment for the course. In addition to cooking, the girls are taught food values, preparation of menus, serving, and so forth. Frequently, on domestic science class day, each girl in the class prepares the evening meal for one table in the senior dining room. In this way, cooking in portions, they have actual experience of what would be required in normal family life. (# 55)

Girls assigned to kitchen duty have an opportunity to do small quantity cooking for the sisters, and also for the prefect who has his meals a half hour before the regular meal times in order to be with the children when they eat their meals. (# 95)

Some plan, not only for giving the children while in training a measure of real responsibility, but also for preparing meals for small groups with ordinary kitchen equipment, is especially valuable for children who receive their domestic science training in institutions equipped for large-quantity cooking and supplied with elaborate labor-saving devices. Preparation of meals with large-scale equipment may give very little training to the girl that will fit her later as wife and mother for small-quantity cooking in her own home.

e. Prevocational training, domestic or manual, is in no sense a substitute for vocational training proper. Where there are children in an institution who must on leaving become at once self-supporting, the institution faces the difficult problem of preparing them for economic independence. This brings us to the subject of vocational education proper.

2. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROPER

In some institutions this problem does not arise at all, as the children leave before they are old enough to enter economic life. In most, however, there are at least some children who need to be prepared, so far as the institution resources permit, for taking their place at once on leaving the institution in the economic world. Before proceeding to the discussion of the three major phases of vocational education it may be well to give a couple of illustrative plans in actual use, the first from an institution that utilizes in the main the vocational training resources of the community, the second from one that has its own trade schools.

During the eighth grade year the sister endeavors to determine, in view of the mental and physical background of each girl, what she is best fitted to do in life. One sister on the staff is in charge of all vocational guidance. The sister Director of Vocational Guidance then discusses with the girl what she really wants to do. The director next gets in touch with the outside school or agency where the desired training may be obtained. The program of courses pursued in these schools and agencies, as well as the employment opportunities in the particular vocation chosen, are already well known or else are thoroughly investigated before application is made for the girl to enter the training school or agency. The girl then makes her own application to the school or agency, the director accompanying her and helping her to establish the necessary self-confidence. After the girl has fully decided upon the course needed and has entered upon her training, continuous close contact is kept up between the Director of Vocational Guidance and the girl's various instructors. Incidentally, as vocational training proceeds, the girls are encouraged to take both civil service and municipal examinations, in order to increase outside contacts and to reinforce the self-reliance that the girl will need in her vocational life. The Director of Vocational Guidance is furthermore continually on the alert for new educational and industrial opportunities for the girls.

In determining what particular type of vocational training the girl should take, her mental, moral and physical make-up is studied individually and intensively, and every endeavor is made to place her where she can be economically independent and at the same time live up to the spiritual ideals that have been held up to her. Mental tests have been in use as routine for the last nine years. The Terman, Haggerty and National Intelligence Tests are being used at present. A test is given each year, with a re-test before the close of school. The results of the test are taken into consideration in vocational advising, and, in this phase of the educational program as in the general educational program, the tests have been found of very great help.

Either at the end of the eighth grade or at the end of the regular high school course, the girls begin their vocational training proper. At the time of the study, five of the girls were pursuing the usual classical course at the Catholic girls' high

school, and college scholarships were being planned for them, as both their abilities and their interests equipped them for advanced education and a profession. Other girls were taking a two-year commercial course at the neighboring Catholic commercial school. Eight of the girls were pursuing studies in a high-grade local trade school, with which the institution has the most cordial relations and from which it receives the heartiest cooperation. Two of these eight girls were taking the course in cafeteria work, including buying of foodstuffs, planning of menus, making of salads, cooking of meats and so forth, with a certain amount of instruction in bookkeeping and salesmanship. This cafeteria course leads to excellent employment opportunities. Two of the girls, whose educational background and mental equipment would not fit them for higher education, were being trained in the power sewing machine department of the trade school, which also leads to good remunerative employment. One girl with special artistic ability was studying dressmaking and costume design. Two others were in the bookbinding department. Two others of more than ordinary intelligence were taking the bookkeeping course. All of these courses and departments lead to lucrative employment. Some of the girls with the required educational background were studying in two of the local Catholic hospital schools of nursing. Throughout the whole program the aim is to find the job that fits the girl and then to fit the girl for the job, each girl being studied individually. (# 39)

All of the children in the institution are required, in accordance with State laws, to attend full-time school until the age of fourteen or until the completion of the eighth grade. While the children are in the seventh and eighth grade, the teachers pay special attention to their vocational possibilities, talk over the future with each child, and endeavor to find the child's own aptitudes and interests. The teachers talk the matter over also with the superintendent, who likewise confers with the children individually. A good deal of light on the ability and special aptitudes of the children is gotten from intelligence tests and achievement tests, as well as from the child's records of progress in the classroom and elsewhere. The child is then permitted to try out what he or she desires. After the completion of grade-school work and the fourteenth year, the child enters either the regular high school or one of the trade courses

according to individual abilities, aptitudes and interests. The boys may at the completion of the eighth grade enter the institution high school. After two years therein they may, if they desire, continue their high school education at an outside school. If they are doing regular high school work they are not permitted to take simultaneously trade school courses. The girls on the completion of the eighth grade may enter the institution high school, either for classical or commercial courses.

The boys who on the completion of the eighth grade do not care to take up regular high school work enter one or other of the trade courses conducted in the institution. The trades taught are the following: gardening, greenhouse work and florist business, printing, painting, carpentry, baking, shoemaking, tailoring, typewriting, stenography and office work. The boys in the trade school study on a full-day basis, from eight in the morning until six in the evening, with an hour for lunch. The various shops are splendidly fitted with the best and latest equipment, and are all under the direction of fully trained and competent men who know the respective trades thoroughly and who are excellent teachers. Two of these courses, those in the florist and printing trades, are conducted on a commercial basis, and thus training is given under conditions involving the same responsibility and the same standards are as required in outside industrial life. Cordial relations moreover prevail between the trade school and the local labor unions, the training in the schools being recognized as apprenticeship, and the prices for work done being so arranged as not to conflict with union standards, — very important practical points where there is question of trade schools.

The girls' industrial school, an integral part of the institution, is, like the boys' manual training school, incorporated under the state laws. It provides courses in stenography, typewriting, record-filing, bookkeeping, plain and fancy sewing, dressmaking, general house work, cooking and kitchen work, waiting on table, child nursing, and elementary courses in food values in the domestic science work. The girls who on the completion of the eighth grade decide not to take up the classical high school courses, enter the trade school. They are engaged therein until noon, but during the afternoon, after their hour for lunch, spend two to three hours in the school room. They are given thorough training by fully qualified teachers in the

respective vocational courses taken. Equipment is excellent. Typewriting and stenography, for instance, are taught both in the high school and trade school departments. The children are not only taught typewriting and stenography, but are given training in the use of electric typewriters, reproducing machines, adding machines, and the other customary equipment of the modern business office. They are also taught the rudiments of bookkeeping and are given practical experience in the institution offices in filing, in record keeping, in making out salaries, statements and pay rolls, and so forth.

The institution keeps in very close touch with local retail and wholesale industries and with local business men as well as with the training schools for nurses. Ordinarily the graduates of the trade schools are placed with little difficulty in lucrative positions in the community, ranging according to the ability and aptitudes of the individual children from domestic service through the skilled trades to clerical and secretarial work. The boys and girls who show an interest in higher studies leading to nursing, teaching, and the other professions, are given every opportunity to obtain the training that will fit them for their professional tasks.

In the country at large very few children follow the trade for which they have received prevocational manual training in school. The superintendent feels that the usual prevocational manual training taught in day schools educates the children in a desirable accomplishment but does not prepare them for a vocation. On the other hand, it has been the experience of the institution that nearly all the boys and girls who have been trained in the institution's trade schools have later followed the vocation for which they were trained and have made good therein. (# 14)

During the last couple of decades a complicated technique and extensive literature of vocational education have grown up. It is manifestly impossible to cover adequately this large field in the few pages that can be devoted to it in the present Manual. All that we can hope to do is to outline certain key practical principles and avenues of approach, and to suggest selected sources for those who may desire to go into the subject more technically and more fully.

Vocational education includes three major phases: vocational

advisement or counseling, vocational training, and placement and follow-up. In other words, vocational education includes helping the child to choose his life work, giving him the specialized training to equip him for the task, and helping him find actual employment in the vocation for which he has been equipped. Attention will be confined to the suggestion of some of the more outstanding principles, policies and methods that have grown out of experience in the field, with special reference to institutional conditions.

a. *Vocational Advisement.* In order to help the child choose wisely the vocational counselor needs to have detailed information upon local industries and upon the occupational opportunities they offer, as well as upon the child's general and special abilities, limitations, and interests. Counsel is given first of all from knowledge of the child, not merely because there happens to be an opening in some home, store, or shop. Knowledge of local industries and occupational opportunities should include detailed knowledge of prevalent wages, hours and working conditions. The adviser should be conversant with the health and moral hazards incident to the various occupations. For instance, the average citizen unfamiliar with the field is apt to think of domestic service as a sheltered vocation. In reality it shows a relatively very high percentage of moral waywardness. Commonly, for younger girls particularly, domestic service spells loneliness, social isolation, long hours, confinement, and restricted opportunities for needed recreation. On the other hand, from the purely financial standpoint, while cash wages in domestic service are apt to be somewhat low, real wages tend to be rather higher than in stores or factories, as the major item in the budget, that of board and lodging, is usually provided for automatically in domestic service. The adviser should know, too, what are the blind-alley jobs in the particular community and what are the vocations that provide good chances of advancement. He should further be familiar with conditions of continuous employment or of seasonal and other unemployment prevalent in the given vocations. To qualify fully as a vocational adviser a very wide range of industrial information, both general and local, is consequently demanded.

The adviser must know the job. Inasmuch, however, as he must counsel the child in choosing the job, he must also *know the individual child*. He must know not only the interests and prefer-

ences of the child but must have as concrete information as possible upon the child's general ability and special aptitudes, in order to help the child choose a life task that will be neither too easy nor too difficult, and that will be in harmony with the child's interests and preferences. Only by such smooth adjustment of child to task are success and contentment ordinarily attained.

The following suggestions as to methods of discovering the interests and abilities of the individual institutional child may be offered.

- (1) Somewhere between the sixth and eighth grades, or even earlier in some cases, a beginning should be made toward stimulating the child to think a little more concretely of his own vocational future and toward talking over the matter individually with him. Such individual conferences are of central importance in throwing light on the child's interests and aptitudes. It may be necessary to have not one but many such conferences before a tentative decision is reached. For the average institutional child, such conferences are especially advisable during the eighth grade, the completion of which usually brings him to a vocational parting of the ways. In all such conferences, however, tactful care must be exercised to safeguard the child's freedom of choice. Counseling that includes too much pressure may become interference to which the child will object and rightly object. Freedom in choice of vocation is a basic human right.

During his spare hours the superintendent spends much of his time with the eighth grade boys, going out after supper with them on hikes, dropping into an ice-cream parlor, and so forth. On these walks, he talks to the boys in groups and individually, and tries to formulate plans for their future. He finds that, because the occasion and chats are informal, the boys are more open than if called into formal conference. (# 72)

- (2) Some light may be gotten from the child's progress and interest in exploratory or tryout courses in the domestic or manual arts, but experience has been that ordinarily in practice not much help is afforded the counselor from this source.

- (3) The physical, medical, mental and scholastic records of the child in the institution ordinarily give important clues to the counselor. In this respect, the institution counselor has a very distinct advantage over the counselor in the average day school, as the various examinations given at entrance and during residence to the institution child are usually far more searching and individualized than those given to the average child at day school. Furthermore these records can be often very considerably amplified and clarified by consultation with teachers, group mothers and other members of the staff who have been in close touch with the child on a twenty-four hour basis.
- (4) Intelligence tests, notwithstanding their well known limitations, are of the greatest value in vocational counseling. They do not, it is true, throw much light on the specific aptitudes and abilities of the child, but they do give the best single measure we have of his general ability and limitations. They enable the counselor to determine, at least tentatively and in a broad way, those groups of occupations for which the child is antecedently fitted or unfitted mentally. As Doctor Furfey has tersely put the situation:
“The boy with an IQ of 80 will not make an efficient bookkeeper. . . . Intelligence tests do not indicate what specific occupations would best suit the subject but they do reveal the general range of occupations within which he will be most at home.” (Social problems of childhood, 206).
- (5) A certain amount of help has been given through life-career classes (cf., e.g., Irwin and Marks, *Fitting the child to the school*, 258-64), and, within limited fields, through vocational tests given the children and through vocational questionnaires filled out by them. Where these are at all feasible in a given institution,—particularly the vocational questionnaire and life-career classes,—they may be cordially recommended.

The first of the institutions quoted at the beginning of the present section has found that the appointment of a special sister as director of vocational guidance has been of very distinct value in im-

proving and expanding the vocational program of the institution. Given the importance in so many institutions of vocational advisement at least, even where conditions do not call for or permit vocational training proper, the plan of appointing such a director may be heartily recommended. It goes without saying that the appointment of a director of vocational guidance should not mean that interest in the vocational future of the children should abate in the least on the part of teachers, group mothers and other members of the staff. It merely means that one member of the staff fits himself or herself by intensive study and local investigation for counseling wisely, and undertakes as a special responsibility the judicious and energetic expansion of the institution's vocational program.

Before leaving the subject of vocational advisement, one important point may be emphasized. The sister whose words are quoted is one who prior to her entrance into a religious order did far-reaching pioneer work in the American economic field and her interest therein continues. What she writes of the parochial school applies with equal force to the institution.

"It is a question worth considering, whether if organized vocational guidance were given in parochial schools, some of the vocations lost to the priesthood and religious life, might not be preserved. You are probably acquainted with—I know that I am—persons who have not followed the Divine prompting, either through timidity because of lack of encouragement, through contrariness from too zealous urging on the part of a priest, or sister, or because of poverty in the home. In either of these cases the wise counsellor who detected, or to whom was revealed the desire of consecrated service would proceed tactfully and cooperate with the proper persons for the preservation of the precious inclination."¹

b. *Vocational Training.* The equipment and maintenance of a trade school involve expenditures that are prohibitive for most institutions to say nothing of the difficulty of securing adequate trained personnel. Where local institutional needs exist for trade training, it is of course well worth while if the institution can provide training facilities. Where, however, the institution is not in a position

¹ Sister Miriam Theresa, in Proc. XIII National conf. Cath. char., 1927, p. 364.

to provide its own trade courses, it can in many or most cases utilize the public and privately conducted schools in the community, having the children live at the institution and go outside for their vocational training.

While only a few institutions here and there have been able to provide their own courses in the skilled trades, a fairly large number have their own commercial courses that fit the children for clerical work. Such commercial high school courses are within the financial and personnel resources of a much larger number of institutions, but the number of children taking them may be so small that even here the utilization of community resources is often more advisable. These are questions which have to be decided in accordance with local conditions. They are merely touched upon here for the purpose of recommending a fuller use of public or private vocational training opportunities for institutions that are not able to provide such opportunities within their own walls. So far as can be judged from the present study, the present drift is towards a decidedly fuller use of the already existing vocational training facilities of the community in which our institutions are located. It may be added parenthetically that in this respect institutions located within urban limits have an advantage over institutions located in suburban or rural sections.

General intelligence levels are not the only criteria for determining choice of vocation. Physical and moral qualifications are recognized as of equal and often of greater importance in any given case. Moreover special abilities, apart from general intelligence, need to be taken into account. Nevertheless general intelligence rating gives some clue as to the kind of training by which a child may be expected to profit and as to the type of vocation he may be expected to follow successfully and contentedly.

Children of supernormal intelligence should so far as possible be given training for the professional or commercial vocations in which their ability can be utilized to the utmost. Those of normal or average intelligence will ordinarily profit most by training that will fit them for clerical work and the skilled trades. Whatever therefore the institutions can provide, within its own walls or outside thereof, to give their children such advantages in specific vocational training will be labor well spent.

In some of our technical schools, many of the girls prefer the commercial course to the dressmaking and similar vocational courses. We insist, however, that even these girls learn enough dressmaking to make their own clothes. We find this a great help to girls who enter office life and who desire to dress in a manner a little beyond the salary they receive. The danger of living beyond income, with its consequent evils, is thus somewhat lessened. (# 201)

One special point may be merely touched upon, that of training in farming and agricultural pursuits. Ordinarily boys who have been reared in an urban environment do not take to farming, gardening, or dairying as a life work. Whether for weal or for woe, their vocational ambitions are cast in an urban mold. While being given training they will not use, they are losing the chance to get training they could use. Training city boys in the agricultural arts is consequently apt to have discouraging results. Where however the children in an institution come in large measure from rural areas and have been reared under rural conditions and traditions, then agricultural training for them is more apt to have vocational value. Where such training in agricultural pursuits is given to the boys, it should of course be given on the highest scientific level, including knowledge of soils, and so forth.

A special problem of vocational training which the institution has often to meet is that of fitting backward and mentally subnormal children for economic life in the world. As regards the low-grade feeble-minded, it is recognized that little can be done to make them self-supporting. It is otherwise however as regards the high-grade feeble-minded child. The experiments at Waverley, Mass., and Rome, New York, to mention only two of the more outstanding ones, have proven beyond question that boys and girls of subnormal mentality can be fitted well into our modern economic system and can become self-supporting and productive participants in our American industrial life. Any type of civilization, and perhaps in particular our present machine civilization, offers tasks and vocations in abundance that do not require high intelligence. A great many of our simpler office tasks and much of our unskilled and semi-skilled factory, shop and store work, do not require superior ability or even average ability. In other words, domestic service, ditch-digging and

dray-driving are not the only refuge of the mentally handicapped. There are numbers of other openings in our modern industrial life for the child who is slightly under normal intelligence.

The institution has often to face the task of preparing such children for independence and self-support within our industrial system. Whatever the institution does for such children to make them more dependable, more industrious, more true to Catholic moral and religious ideals, will help them towards the attainment of this end. For it is becoming increasingly recognized that if the mentally handicapped man or woman has good character traits, he or she can be, not a burden upon, but a contributor to, our economic and social life. The institution can do much to equip the mentally handicapped for the simpler tasks for which they are by ability fitted. The following are illustrations of plans being carried out in two of our institutions for girls.

The girls from thirteen to sixteen years of age who are known from intelligence tests and from other sources to be definitely subnormal mentally, and some too who are found to be markedly non-academic in interests and mentality, are grouped in a special training class. They are given intensive instruction in domestic science with a certain amount of practical experience in the institution itself. Besides the regular courses in menu planning, cooking, sewing, and so forth, they have some hours a week in reading, writing and arithmetic. Three months are also spent in the baby department. While there the girls receive simple instruction in the care of infants. The sister, who is a trained nurse, gives one hour a day of special teaching in this field with Holt's "Care and Feeding of Children" as a textbook. These girls usually secure positions in homes as cooks or nurse maids, are able to do their work well, and ordinarily earn good wages. (# 39)

Some of the girls who are not equipped for more advanced work take simple trade courses in dressmaking and the like. Others attend a local school for domestics, where courses are given in cooking, waiting on table, and so forth in preparation for positions as cooks, waitresses, parlor maids, personal maids, and so forth. (# 81)

These excerpts illustrate the interesting possibilities of train-

ing even within the limited field of domestic service. Domestic service is, however, only one out of scores of occupations into which children of somewhat subaverage mentality can be trained to fit. Within all or all but one of the larger occupational fields,—agriculture, forestry and animal husbandry, extraction of minerals, manufacturing and mechanical, transportation, trades, professional service, domestic and personal service, clerical,—there are numerous simpler tasks to be done which offer wide choices of vocation and good opportunities of employment to the high-grade feeble-minded. The mentally handicapped children who will in later life enter these humbler vocational careers cannot be expected to become leaders. But they can make their way in life, and can live as useful and self-supporting citizens, if properly trained and guided.

A great many children show marked disinclination to ordinary academic education. This may be due to mental deficiency, or to any one or more of a score of other factors. The following abbreviated case studies suggest methods of dealing with such children as well as possibilities of training them for useful careers.

William. William was admitted to the institution at the age of eleven years with a record of having been a trouble-maker in class and a truant. Within the institution he was never amenable to discipline. He probably had sufficient mental ability to do academic work well, but he disliked it heartily and accomplished nothing in it. At the age of fourteen he was placed in the woodworking shop of the institution's trade school. He showed an aptitude for this work and seemed to enjoy it. Through the first year, however, in the shop, he continued to be something of a trouble-maker, but after two years therein he has become one of the most dependable boys in the department. He does his work intelligently and exhibits a high type of workmanship. His future, up to his entrance in the workshop, looked dark; at present it is most promising.

Henry. Henry, an orphan, entered the institution at the age of twelve. He did fairly well at school but apparently got no satisfaction out of academic work. At the age of fourteen he was placed with the painters in the trade school. Here he made good within a short time. A year and a half ago he entered

the drafting room where his progress has been excellent. His interest was so awakened that he voluntarily repeated a certain part of his course in order to attain perfection in it. Furthermore, his social development has begun, initiative has grown apace, and he is fitting well into his environment.

Samuel. Samuel, an orphan, was admitted to the institution at the age of twelve. Physically he was well developed but showed decided retardation in school work and also refused to study. After reaching the seventh grade he became a pronounced truant. He was then tried out in the hotel training course and later on the farm. Finally he was placed in the auto shop where he showed unusual progress. Further shifts however had to be carried out owing to his lack of dependability. Finally he obtained an outside position as assistant chef in a hospital. He has now reached his eighteenth year and is doing his work very satisfactorily.

John. John was large and well-developed physically, but seemingly of low intelligence and decidedly retarded in school. He was never able to spell or to do arithmetic. Throughout his career in the institution he was in the opportunity classes, and only with great effort and with much tutoring and pushing was he able to complete the seventh grade. He was then placed in the auto shop and there to the great astonishment of all who worked with him he appeared to master both practice and theory as rapidly as more intelligent boys, and was fascinated with his work. While he will probably never develop into more than a semi-skilled auto mechanic, nevertheless he has been able to hold his job on the outside and with considerable credit to himself.

c. *Placement.* After helping the child choose his vocation and giving him training therefor, the third and final step is that of helping him to find a job. This is a difficult task at best, and even highly organized bureaus of juvenile placement, financed and operated either privately or by city school systems or by the Federal or State departments of labor, have found their problem no easy one. The more common plan in our institutions appears to be along the line of informal personal touch between the staff of the institution and outside employers. The following are typical illustrations:

The institution keeps constantly in touch with the local business men who assist in providing positions for the girls when ready to leave the institution. (# 79)

The institution has not its own trade school, although an excellent program of prevocational training is in force. When a boy shows a particular vocational aptitude, the superintendent gets in touch with business men in the field to have them take an interest in the boy. Efforts are made to apprentice mechanically-minded boys in the trade for which they have special aptitude and leaning. The apprenticeship may be in any one of many industries. It consists of a four-year course during which the boys receive per-hour payment, increasing from eighteen cents an hour for the first few months up to seventy-two cents an hour, or a little less, at the end of the fourth year. At the end of the four-year apprenticeship, the boy is released and is then free either to continue work at the place of his apprenticeship, or to seek another place of employment. Ordinarily if the boy has made good in his apprenticeship, he is immediately rehired at the same place. (# 72)

The following are some of the more important points that need to be kept in mind in placement work.

- (1) Those in charge of placement have to be familiar with the laws governing school attendance, employment, and working conditions of juniors.
- (2) Close relationship should be established not only with individual employers, but with the local labor and trade organizations.
- (3) If the institution has a lay board of directors, the members can often be of very material assistance in the problem of placement. In connection with this and the preceding point we may urgently advise having both labor and trade organizations represented on the membership of the board.
- (4) Maintenance of close relation between the institution and local outside junior placement bureaus is often both possible and advisable.
- (5) A live alumni or alumnae society can frequently do much

to help find good occupational openings for the institution's graduates.

- (6) The policy of permitting older children to take short-term jobs during the summer, while still in the institution, is worth consideration. It has been found to give valuable experience and vocational help. Its feasibility depends largely of course on local conditions.
- (7) Often boys or girls do not, for one reason or another, stick to the jobs in which they are first placed. It is important, in the early part of their vocational career, to keep close touch with them and to help them to make such further adjustments after first placement as may be required. In a great many cases it is necessary, within the first months or within the first year or so, to assist them in their vocational tryouts. Where a boy or girl has had adequate training and apprenticeship for a given vocation, he or she is more apt to follow this vocation, although not infrequently changes in the place of employment are called for. Where however such specific training and apprenticeship have not been given, a certain amount of shifting and try-out may commonly be expected, not only in the place of employment but also in the type thereof. These first months of economic adventuring are more frequently a crucial period. It is extremely important that the boy or girl who goes out into the world from the institution and has to rely on his or her own resources should keep up close personal relations with the institution and should be given whatever counsel, guidance and help lie within the power of the institution.

C. CULTURAL EDUCATION

The word "culture" has many meanings. We are taking the liberty of using here the expression "cultural education," for want of a better one, to include, primarily, aesthetic training, and, secondarily, training in the courtesies of social living.

Much of what is dealt with in this section could quite properly be dealt with under Recreation. Art and play largely overlap, and the line between them is not always easily defined. One, in fact, of

the chief objectives of aesthetic training is the preparation of the child for the wholesome use of leisure time. It is largely for this reason that special emphasis is given the subject in the present Manual. But there are other reasons, just as there are other objectives of cultural education. To the three R's we rightly add a fourth and fifth, Religion and Refinement.

Aesthetic training multiplies interests and frequently provides lifelong hobbies. Art in its myriad forms is a satisfying and uplifting form of self-expression. It offers many outlets for personal achievement and initiative. It does even more than this.

Opportunity to learn these finer things,—the arts and good manners,—is a right of the child. They help him take his place in the social group.

Training for economic life is an essential. The institutional child must become a bread-winner, but not by bread alone doth man live nor by satisfaction of purely animal needs. Give to nature but what nature needs, man's life is poor as beast's. The boy or girl who learns to love and appreciate beauty or to create beautiful things is thereby lifted above the gross and material, exalted beyond the crass and earthly. Through familiarity with the world of art and beauty, children may "learn to admire and to imitate other models than the captains of industry. They come to appreciate the fact that the sculptor, the architect, the painter, the musician, and the poet confer greater benefits on mankind than the man who organizes sweat-shops, who builds skyscrapers, or who hordes up gold. . . . Those who labor for material gain alone sow the seeds of discord and inflame the passions of lust and greed; and when they die they are apt to be followed, not by the blessings but by the curses of their fellow-men, whereas, those who labor for the higher things of life bring blessings that endure and leave behind them a memory that remains a benediction to all mankind" (T. E. Shields, *Philosophy of education*, 241).

Beauty in all its many rôles lifts and exalts us, above the material and earthly, to the supernal and spiritual, to Him Who is infinite Beauty. Sympathy with and encouragement of the fine arts has been a consistent Catholic tradition. The Church in her liturgical and sacramental life as in her historic philosophy and practice of education has ever relied upon created beauty as an avenue that leads to eternal Beauty, Truth and Goodness.

I. PRINCIPLES

In dealing from the practical standpoint with aesthetic education, it seems best to premise briefly the more basic principles, and then to deal in detail with the various phases of such training. Each department of aesthetic training has its own methods and technique. Into these we shall not enter, as they pertain to technical pedagogy. Certain basic principles may however be suggested which are common to all types of aesthetic training.

- a. While special encouragement and training should, where possible, be given to children who have supernormal talent in any of the arts, on the other hand *all* the children should be trained to aesthetic *appreciation and enjoyment*, and the *maximum number* should be encouraged to *participate* in aesthetic activities, even those who manifest very slight ability therein. Intensive coaching of the few more talented children to the neglect of the less talented or untalented majority is a policy that is open to the same exception as is the recreational policy of developing championship teams to the neglect of the physical training of the great masses of the children.
- b. Passive appreciation and enjoyment of art and beauty are in themselves of far-reaching value, but *active participation* in aesthetic activities needs to be encouraged to the utmost. All children are capable of some measure of achievement in artistic expression and creation. These possibilities need to be developed to the utmost in accordance with each child's ability.
- c. An aesthetic program should give as many and as wide choices as possible. Many a child who is butter-fingered when it comes to using a brush or crayon may be very deft with a musical instrument. Many a child who can be encouraged to little interest in the works of the great masters of painting or music is keenly awake to the beauties that lie hidden in garden, woodland or meadow.
- d. Both in appreciative and in creative aesthetic activities, joy and satisfaction in the activity itself should be stressed, rather than the aim of exhibiting or showing off to an audi-

- ence. It is worth more to feel the beauty of a rose petal than to win a prize at a flower show. It is more important to feel the rhythm of a folk dance, than to execute the dance at a public entertainment. This is not to say that all artistic exhibitions and entertainments should be avoided, but is merely emphasizing the greater importance in aesthetic training of educating the child to love beauty for its own sake and to get joy and satisfaction from the aesthetic activity as such.
- e. A basic objective in aesthetic training is the development of good taste in the ordinary things of life, such as clothing, the decoration of homes, form and color even in pots and pans. There is profound truth in Ruskin's saying that we shall never have an artistic civilization until we make our kitchen utensils artistic. It is well, too, in this connection to bring home the fact that beauty and expensiveness are not synonymous. A marble chapel may be an aesthetic tragedy for all its costliness. A kitchenette can be more artistic than a drawing room on which a small fortune has been lavished.
 - f. Aesthetic appreciation may take form as love of art or as love of nature. Among adults and children, one often finds keen appreciation of the beauties of nature in individuals who are little responsive to the beauties of art. Sometimes the reverse is true. It is of course well to train to an appreciation of the beauty both of art and of nature, but where both types of appreciation cannot be trained, it is well to encourage the child along either line of his leaning.
 - g. A key principle in all aesthetic training should be the linking up of aesthetic with religious interests. It may not be easy to train the child to find books in running brooks and sermons in stones, but it is always possible to help him see the hand of God in woodland flower and starry night.

2. METHODS AND PRACTICES

Inasmuch as detailed methods and practices speak for themselves, we shall in this section confine ourselves largely to outlining actual details on what is being done in our institutions, and shall keep discussion to a minimum.

- a. *Music.* Musical training may be appreciative or executive.

Many who have little capacity or talent for singing or playing, enjoy hearing music.

(1) *Hearing.* All of our institutions are provided with pianos, victrolas or radios, and most of them have all three. Through the victrola and radio particularly the children are given ample opportunity of hearing good music. In addition a great many institutions make it a point to permit the children to attend concerts, symphonies and other musical entertainments on the outside. The following two excerpts illustrate some of the incidental methods in use for promoting interest in good music.

Singing is taught in all classes in the school. At the end of March each year, a musical memory test is given to the sixth, seventh and eighth grades. The children must recognize the names of twelve selections played and must know the names of the composers and their nationality. (# 52)

In connection with the group singing lessons, stories are read to the children concerning the great masters. (# 79)

(2) *Singing.* Singing is taught in all our institutions in one form or another, more commonly as part of the school curriculum.

The children are taught singing in all the grades. A music primer is used in the first and second grades. In the upper grades they learn sight reading. (# 38)

Sight reading is taught from the fourth grade up. (# 11)

Singing is taught to all the children in the school. The Justine Ward method is used throughout the school. (# 67)

The boys are formed into a choir by an outside teacher from a local school of music. He is paid for the lessons and is deeply interested in the work. Sight reading is taught. The boys have received a silver cup as a prize for their singing. (# 44)

The boys have their own choir and also a glee club. (# 9)

The children are taught group singing. Congregational singing is a feature in the institution. (# 25)

Singing is regularly taught to the children. One of the older boys who has a very fine voice is taking vocal lessons from a teacher in the city. (# 27)

It is generally agreed that all the children should be given at least the rudiments of vocal instruction, with training in sight reading at the earliest age possible. The capacity for improvement differs with children but all can make some progress. Special attention may be called in this connection to the religious value of congregational singing, although, naturally, training in secular music should go hand in hand with training in religious music. Where the institution can afford it, it is well worth while to give every possible opportunity for further training to children who have exceptionally good voices.

(3) *Playing Musical Instruments.* In some institutions the turnover is so rapid that not much can be done in training the children to play musical instruments. Such a situation, however, is exceptional. In one institution, for instance, in which the average length of residence is less than a year, a splendid band in three divisions has been organized and enlists the interest of a very high percentage of boys.

(a) *Individual Lessons.* Most institutions provide opportunities to children who show interest and capacity, to learn to play one or more musical instruments. The piano is the more commonly taught, although the violin and other instruments are not neglected. In some institutions individual instruction is given only to those children whose people can afford to pay a modest sum for the lessons, but more commonly such lessons are provided for all children who desire to take them.

Each child who is capable of learning the piano is taught by the sisters. This individual instruction is imparted over and above the singing and band instruction which is given by special instructors who come from the outside. (# 29)

An outside teacher comes to the institution for piano and organ lessons. Six pupils are learning to play the organ and twenty to play the piano. (# 22)

Any child who is capable of learning is given either piano or violin lessons. (# 18)

Lessons in instrumental music are being received by thirty-five children. In addition to orchestra instruction, four of the girls are taking individual lessons in violin, six in mandolin, one in cello, one in saxophone and twelve in piano. (# 55)

(b) *Orchestra and Band.* Orchestras and bands have proven their worth through long decades and years of experience in our institutions. In about a third of the institutions studied there are flourishing bands or orchestras or both. Their values are found by experience to be many and far-reaching. First of all, they give cultural and aesthetic training to very large numbers of the children. Secondly, they serve very distinct recreational and disciplinary ends. Not only does practice in playing absorb a great deal of the time and spontaneous interest of the children, but membership in the band or orchestra gives a status and prestige that go far to prevent or break down any inferiority sense that may exist. This is all the more the case where the band or orchestra plays on the outside and gets due recognition therefor as it invariably does. If the band goes out too much, this may interfere with the ordinary institution régime. Such outside playing can, however, be easily kept within reasonable limits, and on the other hand has all the advantages of extramural athletic games with practically none of the drawbacks. Unlike athletic teams, the band always "wins". Moreover, trophies not infrequently come to the institution band. Finally, the outside activities of the band go far to build up self-confidence in the children and to increase outside contacts.

The institution has an orchestra composed of thirty girls. The pieces consist of a bass violin, cello, twelve violins, a xylophone, bass drum, cymbals, mandolins, and two saxophones. There is also a junior orchestra. If a girl drops out of the senior orchestra, one from the junior orchestra takes her place. (# 46)

There are thirty boys in the band selected in view of their liking for music and ability to study and practice. The band often takes part in local civic affairs. The girls' orchestra or mandolin club is assisted by two girl violinists of the school. One of these girls can play five different instruments. (# 94, an Indian school)

The boys have a splendid brass band. They take full part in local civic celebrations, play in concerts and so forth. Not infrequently too they go to neighboring villages where they play at picnics or celebrations. They have their own uniforms, green, with a tan trench cap, and when necessary wear sweaters

of the same colors. In this particular institution four-fifths of the boys are actively participating either in vocal music as choristers or in instrumental music as members of the band. (# 72)

There are thirty boys in the band which is under the direction of the drum major of the local concert band. Their uniforms have been donated by the Knights of Columbus. They practice daily under the supervision of the sisters. The band plays in the parks on the Fourth of July under the auspices of the Chamber of Commerce and is invited from time to time to play at other places. (# 29)

The children, boys and girls, who are capable of playing music are formed into a band. They play march and classical music and do it astonishingly well. Whenever it is felt that they will not be unduly excited thereby, they go outside to play. They have been in great demand. (# 33,—an institution for backward children)

Every boy is given an opportunity to enter the orchestra or band, whether he has talent or not. Those however showing more than average interest or talent are retained for the regular band which now has thirty members. (# 36)

There is a brass band and an orchestra. Each girl in the institution, — an institution for girls only, — is given an opportunity to try out for these. There are forty girls in the orchestra, and others in the band. Most of the children play two instruments, while some of them play three, four, or even five. The children will frequently be heard in their conversation stating that they are making such and such an instrument their "major" work while some other instrument is only a "side issue". The girls in the band play the horns, drums, cymbals, triangles and the other regular instruments of a brass band. They play all kinds of music from popular to classical. They play on the outside only occasionally, lest this become too much of a burden for them. The professor who conducts the band is unusually talented in this work, and although a very busy man, never fails to give weekly instruction. In addition to the regular band there is a junior band. The members of the junior band are usually younger children. They are often called upon however to take the place of older girls in the regular band. (# 42)

The band is divided into three groups so that if anything happens to one of the boys in the band, another is always ready to take his place. A number of the boys and girls are taking violin lessons and sometimes form an orchestra group with some of the band instruments. (# 38)

There are forty members in the regular band, which is instructed by a very competent professor. The regular professor is assisted by one of the boys who is a graduate and who has charge of everyday practice. There are three groups receiving instruction in band music. There are forty members in the regular band. The band goes on extensive tours each summer and also plays over the radio. It is widely known through the whole section of the country in which the institution is located. (# 62)

There are three bands in the institution with thirty boys in each. Every boy has a chance to try for the band and also has his choice of instrument. The cornet is the most popular with the boys, the drum ranking next in popularity. A boy enters in the third band; if he makes good he graduates to the second, and from this he graduates into the first when a vacancy occurs. The first band plays outside a good deal, particularly at the football games at a nearby university. The band instructor comes once a week, ordinarily on Sunday afternoon. Under him the boys have ensemble practice for a half hour, then they break up into instrumental groups, the instructor teaching all the drummers of the first band, then all the drummers of the second band, and so on. Through the week band practice is held daily during part of the recreation period after the midday meal. The boys in the first band do much of the coaching of the boys in the second band. The recreation period practice takes place in the long corridor that runs the length of the school building, each instrument in its own group, and these groups in turn broken into sub-groups, with frequently individual boys ganging their ain gait. The noise, the visitor can vouch, is deafening, but from personal observation he can testify that the boys were utterly absorbed in their practice, their interest being almost if not quite as great as the noise itself. (# 66)

Two cautions may be suggested regarding bands. First, care should be taken lest institution bands, by giving their services free,

compete with and crowd out professional paid bands. This may cause justifiable criticism from the professional musicians and musical unions. Secondly, tact must be exercised lest the band be exploited in parades and similar outside functions. Most of us would shrink from marching down a street tagged as an "orphan", even though we were marching as one of a band. It may be best to give the institution's band a name other than that of the institution. At any rate the word "orphanage" or synonyms are better left off the bass drum.

(c) *Special Musical Groups.* Under this general heading are here classified certain particular types of bands, orchestras, and so forth, variants of or specializations under the general heading. The instances that follow speak for themselves. They are given as suggestions that may be of value to other institutions.

The institution has a fife-and-drum corps, composed of forty-two boys selected from the fifth to the eighth grades. The two band directors who come once a week are paid by the local Knights of Columbus, who have also furnished the instruments and uniforms. There are three fife-and-drum corps in the city in which the institution is located. These three corps compete with one another each year. The institution corps won the cup this year, although this was its first public appearance. The institution also has a bugle corps composed of thirty-one boys and girls, taught by a teacher furnished by the local board of education. This corps also competes with other local corps, winning the cup this year as did the fife-and-drum corps. (# 52)

The institution has a harmonica band with thirty-seven boys in it. The teacher comes in weekly from the outside. All of the boys are eligible. There is a second band at the institution which serves as a training school and feeder for the first band. The boys are extremely interested in the band, and have a right to be proud of their progress, as this year they won the prize for the whole city in competition with twelve other bands, some of these latter from the local normal school and high schools. The institution band was the youngest that entered the contest. The visitor who heard these boys play can vouch both for their proficiency and for their interest and justified pride in their work. (# 7)

The boys have a splendid band, while the girls have their orchestra. In addition to the regular band and orchestra, a Ukelele Club has been organized for those girls who are not especially talented musically. (# 104)

The toy orchestra is made up of the boys in the kinder-cottage, about four or five years old. As observed during the study, they were dressed in white shirts, pants, socks, and shoes, capes of light blue with yellow lining, and sort of tam-o'-shanter hats, blue with yellow trimmings. In the first row, three of the boys on the right played the Chinese box drums, three in the center the bells, and three on the left the triangles; in the second row standing, two boys played the cymbals and one played the xylophone. One of the boys acted as leader standing in front of the band beating time with a baton wrapped in blue and white ribbon paper and tapping time with his right foot. One of the sisters played the piano and at the same time used the bird whistle, the boys following the melody by keeping time. (# 66)

Regarding the *toy orchestra*, we may merely suggest the educational possibilities that it has in teaching rhythm to very young children. The toy orchestra has spread like wildfire. Both its recreational and educational possibilities are such that it may be not only cordially but enthusiastically recommended. (For details of organization with excellent practical suggestions, see article by Lilian Vandevere, in *American Childhood*, Oct., 1928, reprinted in *Playground and Recreation*, June, 1929; for the rapidly increasing literature and orchestral adaptations, see current bibliographies in latter periodical).

b. *Drama*. Free dramatization as a part of everyday technique in the primary grades pertains to the field of technical pedagogy. We are here concerned more with dramatic activities carried on outside the classroom. Plays and other entertainments may be given with or without adult coaching. Both plans have their values, and an all-round program should usually include or combine the two types. Uncoached dramatic activities, however, are of special value for institutional children in developing initiative, resourcefulness, individuality, self-confidence and self-reliance. Incidentally, when plays and other entertainments are gotten up largely or entirely by

the children themselves, the usually overburdened staff is saved much labor.

All children may find a channel of self-expression in dramatics, the forward as well as the shy. For a good many children participating in dramatic activities is the preferred medium of self-expression as well as the best outlet for artistic and creative impulses. Closely associated with the drama is dancing. This latter subject has been dealt with under Recreation. Here we may be content with presenting some of the dramatic plans and devices that are in use in our institutions and which may serve as suggestions to other institutions.

The children are very fond of drama and in the winter frequently get up their own plays, inviting the superintendent, sisters, and other children to come as audience. (# 27)

The children take the initiative in selecting and preparing their own dramatic performances, and when they feel that they are nearly ready to present them, they invite one of the sisters to criticize their final rehearsal. They make their own costumes for these performances, with the assistance of the sister in the sewing room. These plays and entertainments are given on special feast days or on Sundays chosen by the children themselves. (# 18)

The children dramatize their own plays. The sister may help select the play, but the assignment of parts and the coaching are left to the children themselves. More important presentations are, however, prepared under adult supervision, such, for instance, as performances given on class days or on play days in public parks, or participation in the maypole dance. Special religious plays are prepared for Christmas. (# 79)

An annual event is a surprise play which the children select and study themselves and which is given immediately following the sisters' retreat. (# 39)

At Hallowe'en, each of the group units puts on some kind of a performance prepared by the children themselves. They have free access to the wardrobe and select from this their costumes for the play. The boys frequently get up minstrel shows. (# 67)

The children plan entertainments to their own liking at Hal-

lowe'en, Christmas and other occasions during the year. The girls help make their own original costumes. (# 81)

The Entertainment Committee of the Girls' Club takes charge of the dramatic entertainments for the institution. This Committee offers one short play each month, the cast being drawn from all the girls in the school, both club members and non-club members. A sister acts as coach. (# 55)

The boys put on a good many informal entertainments for their own amusement, while under adult direction they recently presented Benson's "Upper Room", playing it during Lent to more than three thousand people in all. (# 72)

The children recently presented Hiawatha on the playground, using a mound for their stage and the trees, shrubs and hillside as the setting. The work was done under the direction of the physical culture directress of the normal school. (# 64)

The drama plays an important part in the lives of the children. They frequently get up impromptu entertainments and plays, and this at very short notice. They are very fond of dressing up in fantastic costumes. (# 95, an Indian school)

Performances and entertainments are so arranged that every child participates either in an individual part or else as one of a group. Even the children three years of age have some appropriate part. (# 7)

In one of our houses the older girls were accustomed to give entertainments on holidays and at other celebrations. The younger element caught the fever, the first intimation thereof coming in the form of an invitation to attend a play in their recreation hall. Encouraged by their success, they then brought out weekly productions. One never knew what would be borrowed next for costumes and stage settings. (# 201)

The foregoing excerpts have been chosen to illustrate both coached and uncoached dramatic activities as well as the important matter of wide or universal participation by the children.

In addition to the points just touched upon, special attention may be called to the value of the following: pantomime and charades; the more elaborate pageant, where local conditions make it possible; the very informal stunt nights which can easily be presented with practically no preparation and which prove an incentive to the flow-

ering of juvenile dramatic talent. On stunt nights, individual children or groups are free to present any form of entertainment they choose, from dances, songs and recitations to five-minute plays. Usually stunt nights are gotten up at very short notice, with some trivial or symbolic prize offered to the individual or group giving the best stunt, the children themselves often acting as judges.

c. *Arts and Handicrafts.* Drawing, coloring and modeling are, like dramatization, an integral part of the ordinary school curriculum. The present study appears to show that much attention is given these subjects in our institutions. Drawing, coloring with crayon and water-colors, poster-making, paper work, clay modeling and other familiar methods of aesthetic training are found generally throughout our institutions, and in a great many of the institutions are given very intensive attention. Most of this work is more or less tied into the school curriculum.

Extracurricular and leisure-time art activities tend more to take the form of embroidery and fancy work, crocheting, basket making, loom weaving, and other handicrafts. The sand bin has splendid constructive possibilities for the younger children. The present study shows a very deep interest on the part of our institutions in these excellent media for training in aesthetic appreciation and self-expression.

In recent years a great many revived or newly invented handicrafts have been introduced into both educational and recreational programs. Sealing wax work, bead work, wood carving, leather tooling, flower making, and a score of other handicrafts have come into widespread and deserved popularity. Still more recently too "there has come a remarkable development in toy making, the construction of kites and lanterns, boats and airplanes, flowers and other articles whose making has meant expression of the creative instinct and a growing appreciation of the beautiful" (Lee, *The Normal course in play*, 16).

All of these activities are worth while from both the recreational and aesthetic standpoints. Most of them can be carried on at a minimum of expense. If the children have expert instruction and guidance, so much the better. Kindergarten teachers have training in many of the commoner handicrafts. But, even without such professional training, the ordinary staff member or teacher can, with a

little study, equip herself for coaching the children in at least the simpler forms of these handicrafts. Nor need her lack of professional training therein be too great a drawback; in fact it may be an advantage, as it will tend to leave the children freer play of fancy and greater leeway for their own creative impulses. The end result may not be as artistic as might be desired, but at any rate it will be the child's own creation,—a poor thing but his own.

Quite apart, moreover, from the more elaborate handicrafts, many a child, given a few simple tools and some old packing boxes that can be bought for a trifle, will keep himself busily engaged for hours at a time and will often make out of his crude material productions that may not take a prize at an arts and crafts exhibition, but that nevertheless have in them a genuine touch of the artistic.

Special attention may be called to the combined handicraft, dramatic and musical possibilities in making and operating puppet shows. They are rapidly increasing in popularity, not only with children but with adults. (For description, direction, suitable plays, and bibliography, see: C. F. Wells, Puppet shows, in *Playground and recreation*, Nov. 1929, 513-15).

A great many of our institutions arrange to have the children, particularly the older ones, visit the local art galleries. This helps very much toward the development of appreciation and good taste, and incidentally helps to bring the child into closer association with the community in which he will live. One final point is suggested in the following excerpt, which speaks for itself:

Five of the boys who have shown particular artistic talent are now attending special classes which are conducted on Saturday morning in the local Art School. One of the boys recently won the first prize for clay modeling, and another captured the second prize for painting and free-hand sketching. (# 72)

d. *Nature study.* Nature study has both intellectual and aesthetic objectives. We are here concerned more with the latter, although even on its intellectual side nature study is a cultural subject insofar as it helps give the child an understanding of the world of nature around him, quite independently of whether such knowledge can serve utilitarian ends or not.

All of our institutions are providing nature-study work in one

form or another. In the following composite picture, taken from the reports of the institutions studied, is given a summary of methods and devices that have been found useful or that have special application for the institutional child.

(1) *Use of Grounds.* Most of our institutions have good-sized or even spacious grounds. These are frequently made use of for the study of animals, birds, trees, flowers and insects. Often the nature-study classes are held outdoors, taking the form of field trips, in which the textbook is nature itself, the best of all textbooks. This is the ideal method of teaching children about nature and her ways. The institutional grounds also serve as a splendid source for making collections of leaves, flowers, ferns, minerals, and so forth. Periodical public exhibits of such collections may be held, or a permanent "museum" built up. To merit a place in the exhibit or museum, each specimen should be properly identified and labeled by the collector. Then, too, on the institution grounds, the children commonly pick up a great deal of information either by direct observation or from their comrades, information that comes well within the circle of nature study, and that often sinks deeper because it comes informally and without classroom artificiality.

(2) *Visits and Excursions.* Another valuable medium for nature study is visiting zoos and parks. Picnics into the country, and walks through the woods and fields, can easily be converted into nature-study classes, without being called by the name. Where, too, the institution has its own farm or summer home, the children have wonderful opportunities of learning nature's ways.

(3) *Activities.* It is well to learn by observation and inquiry. It is perhaps still better to learn by doing. The tending of flower and vegetable gardens, the care of window boxes or of ferns and flowers in the living rooms, the keeping of pets, the making of collections from woods and fields, are all splendid methods by which the child acquires unconsciously a living knowledge of the world of nature about him. A few special activities along this line may be mentioned. Pre-adolescent clubs, such as Scouting, Campfire, and so forth, commonly put a good deal of emphasis on nature lore and provide a real measure of nature training. One institution (# 83) has a junior Audubon Club, membership in which is open to the children from the fourth grade up. A number of the institutions

encourage the children to make and put up bird boxes on the grounds. Making boxes, putting them up, and observing the occupants, occupy many hours and days in a labor of love that both trains the mind and refines the emotions. A quite distinct type of nature activity is presented in the following excerpt.

Through arrangement and registry with the Federal Biological Survey, traps are provided by the Survey for capturing and banding birds. There are three traps on the grounds. In one month, May, 1928, one hundred and sixty birds were taken in these traps. When a bird is captured a small band furnished by the Survey is put around the bird's leg, and the bird is let go. This work, as is well known, is being carried out on an international scale and has led to the discovery of a good deal of most valuable information on the migration of birds. A very careful record is made of the birds banded, their species, date and place of banding, and the numbers of the bands, and the record transmitted to the Survey. Banding a bird is always an event in the eyes of the boys. The boys have received hearty commendation from the Survey for the splendid work they have done. They enjoy the work immensely and through it have learned much of the ways of birds. (# 38)

(4) *Books.* There are abundant excellent nature books available. Boys and girls are usually very much interested in them, particularly the books that are well illustrated. Among the best of them are the series published by the National Geographic Society on North American animals and birds, and the small pocket-size field manuals on birds, trees and flowers published by Doubleday, Page. One of the best of the magazines is the *Nature Magazine*. Children usually enjoy immensely good stories about animals. It is well to see that the children's library is well stocked with this type of literature. It provides interesting reading, it imparts a wealth of nature lore, it trains to sympathy with and appreciation of the works of Him Who holds the universe in His hands.

3. MANNERS

Looked at from one angle, training in good manners is an integral element of cultural education, as good manners are of the graces of life, part of the aesthetics of social living. Viewed from

another angle, good manners are near kin to good morals, nearer to godliness than is the proverbial cleanliness. Most of us, if obliged to live under the same roof with a saint without manners, would be tempted to question the genuineness of his sanctity.

In the institutional program, table manners come in for a large share of attention, as the code of table etiquette is a little elaborate. While, however, training in table manners is perhaps the most complicated phase of training in etiquette, due attention is needed to train in the courtesies used in other social relations,—in chapel, in classroom, on the playground, in living room, dormitory and kitchen, everywhere and in all the activities of life. Special attention may be called to the importance of courtesy on the playground and towards visiting teams as one of the best media for training in social living. Birthday and other parties are excellent experience in social usages. Where local conditions permit mingling of boys and girls at parties or dances, an excellent opportunity offers for training in proper relationships. If tactful suggestions be given, there will be less both of awkwardness and of over-interest.

Illustrations of the objectives aimed at and of the general methods in use are given in the following brief excerpts.

Table etiquette is taught both in the dining room and in the classroom. Small groups of children are often taken after school on Friday afternoon and given special instruction in the use of knives, forks, and so on. Sometimes knives, forks and plates are brought into the classroom itself for demonstration and drill. (# 68)

One evening a week at the supper hour, each dining room is supposed to devote special attention to table manners. At this meal the group mothers sometimes give brief talks on table manners. If a child's manners need correction, a quiet word may be said to the child, or later he is told of a better method when he is alone. Sister may correct a child quietly at other meals during the week, but this one meal is set aside on the theory that if each child concentrates thereat upon table etiquette, habit will carry over to other meals. (# 88)

Table manners are taught both at table and in the lessons on etiquette in the classroom. The text used in class, Cadieux' "Practical Talks with the Christian Child", has been found satisfactory. (# 67)

Table manners are taught by the cottage mother. When she waits on the table and supervises the dining room, she shows each child how to manage food, knife, fork and spoon, how to pass dishes, ask for more, and so forth. Special attention is paid to courtesy on the playground in such things as the avoidance of undue teasing and the practice of good sportsmanship. (# 71)

The courteous attitude of the children towards one another on the playground has largely been developed by the chaplain who resides at the institution's villa during the summer months and keeps close touch with the children in their play. Special effort has been made to train them to courtesy in match games both as winners and as losers. Experience has been that training in courtesy and sportsmanship toward outside teams has been easier than such training toward opposing teams drawn from the institution population. (# 22)

Parties are given frequently on Valentine Day, Hallowe'en, and so forth, and are capitalized as opportunities for teaching the courtesies expected from hostesses and guests. Also after every match game, refreshments are served to both winners and losers. In these and in many other ways the children unconsciously learn how to act in the ordinary social relationships. (# 79)

REFERENCES

General. In the vast literature on education, there is no standard work covering thoroughly the field of education in child-caring homes. Some of the more important phases are briefly but well discussed in *Handbook for institutions*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, ch. xi, on general and vocational education; Reeder, *How two hundred children live*, ch. iii, on industrial training, and ch. v, on the school; Sister of Mercy, "Secondary education for institutional children," with Discussion, in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting of Special conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1921, 30-33; Elizabeth T. Sullivan, "Survey of the educational methods of three child caring institutions," in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1927, 365-70. A very useful annotated list of selected Catholic and non-Catholic works on all phases of education,—philosophy, history, principles, classroom management and methods, curriculum, educational psychology, tests and measurements, vocational guidance,—may be found in: Agnes Collins, *A Catholic high school library list*, Nat. Cath. welfare conference, Wash., D. C., 1928.

Subnormal and Supernormal Children. Good bird's-eye-view of the general problem both of the subnormal and of the supernormal or gifted child may be found in: P. H. Furfey, *Social problems of childhood*, ch. vii, and *The gang age*, chs. vi-viii. In the extensive literature on methods of teaching exceptional chil-

dren, both subnormal and supernormal, two of the best studies, for concreteness and practical suggestions, are: Irwin and Marks, *Fitting the school to the child*; L. S. Hollingworth, *Gifted children*. Some suggestive short papers on the exceptional child in the child-caring home are: Sister M. Annette, *The mental defective in our orphan asylums*, with Discussion; I. S. Wile, *The changing I. Q. in children's institutions*, and, *Child care or child development?* On mental-level grouping in classrooms, see article, "I. Q. to Coventry," in *The Survey*, Jan. 15, 1931, lxv, 448-49.

Library and Reading. Good commonsense counsels on children's reading by R. C. McGoldrick, "Literature and youth," *Cath. char. rev.*, Oct. 1927, xi, 305-07. A number of good reading lists for children are available. Among them, three of the best and of the most used in public libraries, are: C. W. Hunt, *What shall we read to the children?*—especially for children under seven; B. E. Mahony and E. Whitney, *Realms of gold in children's books; Books for boys and girls*, Toronto public library. Collins' *Catholic high school library list*, cited above, gives a good selected, classified and annotated list of over 3,000 Catholic and non-Catholic works suitable for children in the teens. The Introduction, pp. 9-15, gives some brief practical points on library science. Good, brief hints on equipment and arrangement of library, in *Catholic school interests*, July, 1929, viii, 173-76. The following lists will also be found suggestive: Reville, *My bookcase; Library books for the elementary schools in the archdiocese of Dubuque*; lists in Lee, *Normal course in play*, 59.

Vocational Education. An excellent short outline of the problem, with selected, annotated bibliography, may be found in: Furfey, *Social problems of childhood*, ch. ix. For a good outline of some of economic conditions that need specially to be borne in mind in vocational counseling, see: Sister Miriam Theresa, "Problems of vocational adjustment," in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1927, 353-64. Among the larger works dealing professionally and in detail with the problems and methods of vocational guidance may be recommended: F. P. Allen, *Practice in vocational guidance*, and *Principles and problems in vocational guidance*,—both being books of readings; National society for the study of education, *23rd Yearbook*, part II, Vocational guidance and vocational education for the industries; *Vocational guidance and junior placement*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 149, giving very practical and detailed suggestions from the methods in use in twelve of our American cities. Recent developments in industrial education are surveyed briefly in M. M. Proffitt, *Industrial education 1926-28*. For bibliography, see M. R. McCabe, *List of references on vocational guidance*. See also a number of practical hints in G. Eisenbacher, *Vocational training in our institutions*. Both the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the Industrial Division of the U. S. Children's Bureau are always ready and willing to furnish inquirers with literature, information, and counsel on all phases of vocational education. Our child-caring homes desirous of expanding their vocational programs would do well to get in touch with either of these well-equipped federal agencies.

Cultural Education. Each of the major fine arts has its own extensive technical literature well known to teachers of these arts. Good selected bibliographies may be found in: Collins, *Cath. high school library list*, 76-79, or in Lee, *Normal course in play*, rev. ed., 54-60. Among the best sources on the handicrafts

is F. G. Bonser and L. C. Mossman, *Industrial arts for elementary schools*. Art and religion are extremely well correlated in M. G. McMunigle, *Art education through religion*. Attention may be called to the artistic as well as the prevocational and recreational possibilities suggested in two recent pamphlets: *You can make it: practical uses for secondhand boxes and odd pieces of lumber*, and *You can make it for camp and cottage*. *The School arts magazine*, (Davis press), Worcester, Mass., (mthly exc. July-Aug., \$3.00 a year) contains in each number a wealth of detailed suggestions on art and handicrafts for school-age children. On nature study, *The Nature magazine*, Wash., D. C., (mthly, \$3.00 a year) may be cordially recommended.

Manners. Numerous short manuals for children are on the market. L. E. Cadieux, *Practical talks with the Christian child*, is a good primer, brief and clear. Sister James Stanislaus, *Manner and good manners*, is a little more detailed and advanced, suited for teen-age children.

CHAPTER IX

SOCIAL POLICIES

A. THE PROBLEM

1. *The Primacy of the Family.* That the child's place is in his own home and under the care of his own parents is a basic principle of Catholic domestic policy. Perhaps, in view of the fact that from both the biological and the social standpoints the family centers around the child, this principle may justly be called, not *a* basic, but *the* basic, principle of domestic policy. The Church throughout her history has consistently insisted upon the primacy of the family in the whole social order. It has just as consistently insisted that the parents are the natural guardians, protectors and educators of their own children. Into their hands is committed by the Father of us all the responsibility for the care and protection, for the physical, mental, moral and religious training of their children. Not to society as such, nor to the integral authoritative social group we call the state, nor to fractional voluntary groups within the state, is committed the primary responsibility for the care and training of the young, but rather is such responsibility committed in the first place to parents. Only when and insofar as parents are incapacitated for such care and training, may and should other agencies undertake parental responsibilities.

The Church is deeply concerned to preserve the unity and the integrity of the family. To say nothing of divorce proper, even separation from bed and board is permitted only for most urgent causes. If it be necessary to permit such separation of husband and wife, then all means must be taken to reestablish the sundered bond of domestic unity at the earliest possible moment. Separating children from parents is no less a sundering of domestic unity than separation of husband and wife. He who takes part in any way whatever, whether by act or by counsel, in separating offspring from parents is acting in a moral matter of gravest moment. Such participation in the sundering of a family is ethical only where the most

compelling reasons intervene. It is only as a last resort and where all other measures have failed, that outside agencies, secular or religious, may in good conscience either counsel or encourage or otherwise take part in the separation of children from their parents. Furthermore, if such grave causes for separation do exist, then the responsibility of returning the children to their parents and of reuniting the broken family ties at the very earliest possible moment still remains.

2. *The Rational Grounds for Family Primacy.* The two foregoing paragraphs summarize the basic Catholic policy and teaching upon the integrity of the family and of the home. Such policy and teaching however are not confined to Catholic circles, and, quite apart from distinctively religious sanctions, are based on the broadest rational grounds. The family best meets, primarily the profoundest needs of the child, and secondarily the almost equally profound needs of parents themselves.

a. In the chapter on small-unit and large-unit systems (pp. 567-69), we emphasize that the family is singularly well adapted to be the primary educative agency inasmuch as it is a relatively *small* group in which the immature members are under an educational leadership that is *definite*, *continuous*, and *comprehensive*. It is thus peculiarly fitted to meet the child's fundamental needs for training.

b. "The home is the nursery of love, that highest and noblest of all human virtues. As love is the highest expression of the Godhead so also is it the highest aim and purpose of human life. In the cultivation of this noblest of virtues there is no agency that can take the place of the home. There is no living person on whom the child can center its affections to the same degree as on its own parents, and there is no other living person who can become so attached to the child as its own parents" (O'Grady, in Proc. 4th Annual Meet. of Religious, N. C. C. C., 1923, 271). And, we may add, we are seeing more and more clearly that there is no deeper need in the child's life than the need of love and of the daily marks of affection received from and given to his own parents.

c. Under the family system of child training, the native parental impulses towards love, protection and care of the young are utilized to the maximum in the service of the child. Institutions and

foster homes likewise utilize and capitalize such impulses, but by no means to the same degree or extent.

d. Parental care of the young is the chief training school for adults themselves in unselfish love that is the very heart of the Christian moral law, as well as in a whole cluster of both the gentler and the sterner virtues, kindness, charity, self-sacrifice, forgiveness, self-mastery, courage, perseverance, and so forth. There is for the great majority of adults no adequate substitute for such training. There are, of course, many exceptions; but for the great mass of human beings, parental responsibilities are the main boulevard that leads to the higher moral life.

e. Family life with its consequent parental obligations definitely pins down responsibilities for the training of the young, and at the same time widely distributes such responsibilities among the membership of the social body. Of its essence it makes for an equitable division of labor in the supreme office of child-rearing. By its nature it democratically spreads responsibility over the larger portion of the race. In thus blocking the evasive tactic of shirkers, it holds a major portion of the members of our race to far-reaching duties and responsibilities.

3. *Basic Practical Policy and Principles.* The foregoing are probably not the only rational grounds for upholding the primacy of the family and of the home in the matter of the care and the training of the child, but they are at least some of the more important ones. They amply justify the basic policy underlying both Catholic domestic ethics and contemporary social work, the policy expressed in the familiar aphorism: "The child's place is normally in his own home". Institutional social policies are not things apart from the rest of life. They must be consistent with and based upon the more inclusive social policies that cover the whole domestic field. These wider policies determine, therefore, the three paramount institutional policies which may be roughly formulated as follows:

- a. *The admission of a child to an institution is to be counselled as a measure of last resort, only where parental care and training have radically broken down.*
- b. *Residence within the institution should last only so long as parental inability persists.*

- c. *Return of the child to his own home and parents is obligatory so soon as the child's home is sufficiently rehabilitated to care for him reasonably well.*

These are very general principles. Important qualifications thereupon must be made. In the following pages, endeavor will be made to do so, in the light of institutional experience. The three major social policies thus roughly formulated may serve also as a convenient triple division of the main body of the present chapter: admission, residence, and discharge. A final section on records will complete the chapter.

B. ADMISSION

If admission policies be wise, the efforts and sacrifices made in behalf of the children admitted are made in the noblest and holiest of causes, and the result is pure gain. If admission policies be unwise, if the efforts and sacrifices be made for children who should not be in the institution at all, then, however noble and holy the intentions, the result is pure loss, or worse than loss. For in this case more harm than good is done to the children, to their parents, and to society. So far there seems to be hearty agreement among all engaged or interested in child-caring work. The real rub comes in determining what policies are wise and what policies are unwise. While difference of view crops out at many points on matters of detail, general agreement prevails as regards most of the essentials. In the following pages we shall give chief emphasis to these accepted essentials.

I. PRESENT TRENDS

Separation of the child from its parents and kin should be counseled, according to the principles and on the grounds therefor outlined above, only as a measure of last resort. The Catholic social conscience finds itself therefore in full agreement with the following key recommendations of the White House Conference of 1909:

“Home life is the highest and finest product of civilization. It is the great molding force of mind and of character. Children should not be deprived of it except for urgent and compelling reasons. Children of parents of worthy character

suffering from temporary misfortune, and children of reasonably efficient and deserving mothers who are without the support of the normal breadwinner should, as a rule, be kept with their parents, such aid being given as may be necessary to maintain suitable homes for the rearing of the children. This aid should be given by such methods and from such sources as may be determined by the general relief policy of each community. . . . Except in unusual circumstances the home should not be broken up for reasons of poverty, but only for considerations of inefficiency and immorality."

That the principles and points of view underlying these recommendations are being increasingly acted upon in our Catholic child-caring work seems evident from the population trend in our institutions as well as from other facts at our disposal. The data on population trend are given here. The other facts will be presented passim in the course of the present chapter.

During the present study, it was not found feasible to determine population trends in all the institutions visited, nor was the gathering of such information one of our primary objectives. Data, however, were available from thirteen of the institutions.

In two of the institutions there was a definite increase: from 295 in 1923 to 401 in 1928 (# 80); from 230 several years ago to 324 in 1928 (# 93). In the former case the increase was apparently due to the recent provision of ampler needed housing facilities; in the latter case, to unusual economic pressure in that particular community.

In three other institutions (# 14, # 48, # 72), the population during the five years preceding 1928 remained fairly stationary, although in two of them there occurred a slight decrease.

In eight of the institutions the tendency has been quite definitely toward decrease. The amount of decrease and some of the causes therefor are given in the following excerpts:

The population has decreased from 700 a few years ago to 447 in 1928. The institution has accommodations for 650 children. The Sister Superior attributes the drop in numbers to mothers' pensions and to *social investigations before admissions*. (# 11)

There has been a decrease in recent years from a maximum of 350 to the 1928 population of 131. (# 19)

Between January 1st, 1918 and January 1st, 1925, population increased from 118 to 160. In the following three years however from January 1st, 1925 to January 1st, 1928, the population decreased from 160 to 122. At the time of the study, in May, 1928, the population was 124. The capacity of the institution is 156. This considerable decrease since 1925 is a direct result of the inauguration of *more adequate preadmission investigations*. (# 27)

The population has decreased in recent years due to the fact that the children do not remain so long in the institution now as formerly. The population at one time a little over a decade ago had approached 1300. By 1921 this had been reduced to 1009. The decrease since that time has been a fairly consistent one, and by 1928 the population had gone down to 913. (# 67)

The population for the last five years has averaged 192. In 1928 it was around 170. The reason for this is that a *closer guard has been kept of the intake*. (# 72)

The population has gradually been reduced, from 100, to 54 in 1928. (# 74)

The population in 1923 ranged around 190; in 1928, 130. (# 75)

The total yearly admissions reached their highest point, 188, in 1914. There has been a fairly steady progressive decrease in the number of yearly admissions since that date until in 1927 the number had fallen to 42. The population itself was 231 on January 1st, 1922. By January 1st, 1928, it had dropped to 178. With the appointment of the director in 1914, and with the addition of a *social worker to the staff* in 1918, the intake was lessened considerably. The lessened intake is attributed to *case work investigations before admission*, to *improved family service work*, to increase in mothers' pensions, and to the decrease in immigration due to the World War and to the restrictive immigration laws. (# 88)

It is not possible to determine conclusively whether the trend toward lower institutional population is nation-wide and permanent.

The present (1929-31), financial depression is, in some localities at least, leading to increase of institutional population. It is clear, however, that in many institutions, perhaps in the majority, there has been a marked trend toward decrease of population during the last ten years. More careful preadmission investigations, the more strict control of intake, the increase in mothers' pensions, in subsidies to mothers by voluntary agencies, and in family relief work have had a very considerable share in such decrease as has occurred. The foregoing data, scattered soundings though they be, give evidence that markedly increasing use of community resources is being made by our institutions in order to keep families together and to keep children with their own parents.

By way of introduction to the systematic consideration of methods of attaining these eminently desirable objectives, the following excerpt may serve as our point of departure.

Children are accepted on a case-working basis after investigation of all the circumstances. The first step is a consideration of whether the problem presented is a family problem and whether it can be solved on a family service basis. The second step is to determine if the problem can be solved through the mothers' pension. The third step is to find if the child can be cared for in the home of relatives. If, after careful investigation, none of these solutions is practicable, the fourth step is taken, namely, that of determining from full knowledge of all the circumstances in the case whether the child will profit better by foster-home care or by institutional care, and if the latter, which institution should be chosen. The fifth step is making definite plans for the child after it has been accepted for institutional care. From the foregoing it is clear that *a child is not accepted for the reason of poverty alone*. Such a case is solved by family service or by the mothers' pension. Other cases are solved in accordance with normal case work principles and practices. In all instances thorough case work investigation is required before any child is admitted to the institution. The preadmission investigation includes reference to the confidential exchange, visits to the child's home, interviews with child's relatives, and use of the various other sources of information concerning the character of the home and the needs of the child. (# 88)

In the following pages, we shall deal first with the various devices for holding the family together; then, with available measures if the child is to leave its home; next, with personnel and procedure in preadmission investigation; and finally with special policies for formal transfer of custody and for parental payments.

2. KEEPING THE CHILD IN ITS HOME

During the course of the present study a number of case histories were secured. Some of these will be given in the present chapter to illustrate social policies. The following four cases bear directly on the problem of maintaining the integrity of the family.

Case 1. On the recommendation of the parish priest and of interested neighbors, application was made for admission to the institution of Helen, aged fifteen, Mary, aged eleven, and Margaret, aged nine. The mother was dead. The father was a heavy drinker and was reported to be abusive toward Helen, who was left in charge of Mary and Margaret and of a younger brother, William, aged seven. The father worked out of town a good deal at a skilled trade, had a fairly good income when working, and sent money pretty regularly to Helen for the support of the family. On his return home, finding that Helen had run into debt, he upbraided her severely, and commenced drinking again. Upon this, Helen left home and went to live at the house of a relative.

On investigation, it was found that the father was a well-meaning man and very fond of his children. He attributed his trouble with his daughter to interference on the part of neighbors. The children were attending parochial school, but the father was not regular in his religious duties. The home was well kept and the income adequate, but Helen was left too much alone and was somewhat extravagant. Information was obtained regarding a number of the relatives. Finally one of the father's sisters, whose children were grown up, agreed to take the father and the four children into her home, if the father would pay board for them. This arrangement was carried out, and the four children and the father took up residence in an entirely new neighborhood with new associations in the home of this sister. The arrangement proved satisfactory.

Case 2. The mother, a Catholic, was actively tubercular. The father, a Protestant, asked placement of his wife in a sanitarium and of the children,—Anne, aged ten, Elizabeth, aged eight, and James, aged four,—in a Catholic institution, as the father, in view of his wife's illness, was unable to care for the children.

Investigation showed that the only one desiring placement was the father. He believed his wife's condition to be hopeless. The poorly kept home and poorly trained children made him desirous to shake off all responsibility. With his wife and children disposed of in institutions, he would feel free to make his own plans. He was beginning to pity himself for the burden he had to carry. The worker realized she must win his intelligent consent to any plan made, otherwise the solution would not be a permanent one. He had many splendid qualifications. He was honest and industrious. He had a good work record and was earning \$130 a month. He was very fond of his home life. On the other hand, he had failed to adjust himself to his wife's illness, had become discouraged, and, under this stress, had grown somewhat unkind and inconsiderate toward his family. The father's mother and brothers, his only relatives in that part of the country, were visited. Neither was able to help financially and on account of antagonism between the mother-in-law and daughter-in-law, as well as on account of the daughter-in-law's illness, it did not seem advisable to suggest boarding of the family with the mother-in-law. The mother of the children was opposed to their placement in an institution. Arrangements were finally made to have the mother sent to the county sanitarium. A housekeeper was secured, but she turned out to be unsatisfactory. A change of housekeepers was then made. The father was well pleased with the final arrangement. He learned to realize anew his responsibility toward his family. He spends the evenings with his children and takes them every other Sunday on picnics. On alternate Sundays he visits his wife at the sanitarium. The Catholic Bureau is continuing supervision of the case and pays for the housekeeper. The father was obligated under the law to pay for his wife's care in the sanitarium, as he had an income and some property.

Case 3. Two days after the death of his wife, the father asked that his two children, Henry, aged six, and Martha, aged four,

be placed in an institution. Sometime previous to his wife's death he and his family had lived with his mother-in-law. Owing to friction in the home and to financial reasons, the father had been obliged to move from his mother-in-law's home. His own home, a rented one, was in a state of neglect as a result of his wife's long illness, and the father felt that his financial condition would not warrant re-stocking the house.

The father's relatives were not in this country, and the mother's relatives were not able to assist, nor were they sympathetic. The father was a steady and reliable worker, but his income averaged only about \$85 a month. A careful budget was made out, including wages of housekeeper, and a deficit of about \$40 a month was found. The Bureau promised to secure a satisfactory housekeeper, and the father entered heartily into the plan for keeping the home together. This plan was carried out, the Welfare Bureau providing the supplementary budget to pay the housekeeper and to supply milk. The father is most grateful that his earlier plan to place the children was not put into effect. The family has been held together. The father states that when he leaves in the morning he looks forward to his return in the evening when the children will run to meet him. A visit is made once a week to the home, and the father frequently calls at the Bureau to discuss the plans he has in mind for his children. In his spare time he is taking a mechanical course, and on its completion the Bureau plans to secure for him a better-paying position.

Case 4. The mother had just died, after a lingering illness in the hospital. The oldest daughter, aged thirteen, had been sent to live with the father's sister immediately after the death of his wife. The father and his three boys, aged eleven, nine and six, were living in furnished rooms, but he frequently changed his address in order to evade his many persistent creditors. On account of the mother's long illness, he had had to incur many debts. He saw only one way to solve his problem and that was to place the two older boys in an institution, while leaving the oldest girl with his sister and keeping the youngest boy with him.

The father's work record was excellent. He was earning about \$1800 a year. The children were well bred and very attractive and were in good physical condition. They were

devoted to their father, this devotion apparently being inspired by his love for them. He enjoyed being with them, playing with them during the evenings, and spending his holidays with them. His desire to keep the youngest child indicated that his plan for placement for the other children was based on his inability to solve his problem in any other way. Because of unsatisfactory experience with housekeepers during his wife's illness, he was unwilling to reestablish the home with a housekeeper. Contact was made with relatives residing at a distance. The father's sister who had taken the oldest girl was both willing and anxious to keep her. The mother's relatives were not found cooperative. The man's pastor on being visited enter into the plan for establishing the family in a Catholic boarding home. Through members of his parish, a desirable home was found with a middle-aged married couple whose married daughter and son-in-law lived with them. Under this arrangement, the children received the best of care and the father was much pleased. Some months later, the oldest girl returned to her father as she was lonesome for him and for her brothers. Meanwhile the father had made arrangements with a collecting agency by which he could pay off his debts at the rate of \$7.00 per week, and the fear of his debts being reported by his creditors to his employer was eliminated. The father had been neglecting his religious duties for many years, but returned to the Sacraments following his wife's death. The middle-aged couple with whom the family first boarded decided to move to another state. A new boarding home was then found in an adjacent parish where there is a parochial school. The daughter entered the Catholic high school and the three boys the parochial school. The Bureau meanwhile continued to keep in contact both with the pastor and with the family.

The foregoing simple cases illustrate some of the more common problems and solutions in the matter of keeping parents and children together. The following thumb-nail cases are taken, not from the present study, but from another unpublished source, and illustrate instead what might have been done.

Children placed in institution on the ground that the father was a widower. Later investigation showed that at the time of placement the man had already married a second time.

Children placed in institution without effort being made to get in touch with the grandmother who had been caring for them. The mother had returned the children to the father in order to force him to support them. He relieved himself of the obligation by having them placed in the institution. The grandmother stated to the visitor that she would have been perfectly willing to continue caring for the children if she had known what the father intended to do.

The maternal grandparents were willing and able to take care of child, but were not communicated with before the child was placed.

Four children placed in institutions. The children's aunts were able and willing to take care of two of them, but were not communicated with.

Child need not have been placed in institution, if relatives had been communicated with.

Child received from a woman who claimed she was a widow, but who had already remarried.

Cases like the foregoing could easily be multiplied. The samplings presented however illustrate two things: first, *some* of the simple practical measures for keeping children in their own homes; secondly, some of the gravely harmful errors that can easily be committed if adequate preadmission investigation be not made. Unquestionably a minor proportion of applications for admission turn out after full investigation to be legitimate ones. With such applications we shall deal in the next section. But accepting applications,—by whomsoever made or recommended,—without adequate investigation, inevitably leads to numerous avoidable tragedies for children and parents.

a. *Reasons for Limitation of Intake.* (1) *General.* In the beginning of the present chapter we have sketched five of the broad ethical considerations which demand that, so far as possible, children be kept with their parents and kin, and hence kept out of institutions and foster homes.

The problem of limitation of institutional intake derives additional gravity under our American conditions from two further facts: first, the very small percentage of full orphans in our American "orphanages"; secondly the high cost of per-capita institutional maintenance.

(2) *Parental Status.* Data on parental status of the children were obtained from ten of the institutions included in the present study. In these ten institutions 16% of the children were full orphans, 42% were half orphans, and 42% had both parents living. The average percentage of full orphans in the Catholic Institutions of the country is in all probability much lower. "From studies of the population of Catholic child-caring homes, it has been found that not more than 10 per cent of their population consists of full orphans" (O'Grady, Introduction to Social Work, 88). For the country at large, including both Catholic and non-Catholic institutions, we have no complete data, but a number of studies that have been made of the percentage of full orphans in numerous child-caring institutions give figures ranging from 8% down to 4% and less (Leete, The Children's Bureau of Cleveland, p. 1).

We are here face to face with the now well-recognized fact that the overwhelming majority of children in child-caring homes have either one or both parents living. The question naturally forces itself upon us: How many of these 84% to 96% or more of the children could have been kept with their parents, had adequate pre-admission investigation been carried out and had adequate use been made of the alternatives to separating the children from their parents? Typical concrete cases such as those given above, and the data on actual populational decrease presented, suggest that a very considerable proportion of these children in institutions need never have been separated from their own parents. One has not to search far for abundant further evidence pointing unmistakably to the same conclusion. For example:

The experience of our Catholic Charities Bureau shows that, of all the children for whom application is made, about one-sixth are actually accepted. (# 88)

Of the last 160 applications made, only 20 were, after investigation, accepted. Even some of these 20 could perhaps have been provided for in other ways, had it not been for pressure brought. (# 355)

Through the services of the Catholic Welfare Bureau, within six months 30 children have been adjusted in their own homes or with relatives. (# 46)

Since the employment of a social worker on the institutional staff one year ago, 50 applications were disposed of satisfactorily, otherwise than by admission to the institution. (# 133)

Of the 301 applications for admission to institutions made to the St. Paul Bureau of Catholic Charities, from July 1, 1924 to July 1, 1925, 82 cases were granted admission. Among the refused, 33 were handled through family service; 39 were withdrawn, an adjustment having been made through relatives, housekeepers, etc.; 26 were found to involve no real problem or else the applicant refused further assistance (Blong, in Proc. 11th Nat. Conf. Cath. Char., 1925, 182-84; cf. also, *ibid.*, 187-88, 191):

(3) *Costs.* In a country such as our own, which possesses such vast surplus wealth, theoretically there should be no counting of financial costs where the welfare of a child is concerned. Nevertheless, however forcefully and energetically we continue pleading for the contribution of a more generous share of this wealth to the urgent needs of our dependent children, we have to face the very obvious fact that actual resources are decidedly limited and will for many a day continue to be so. Those who recommend lightly the separation of children from their parents and the admission of the children to an institution, very often do not stop to think of the financial cost.

The average length of residence differs very greatly from institution to institution. Such average residence among the institutions included in the present study ranged from ten months to five years. Data gathered in 1924 on the average length of stay of children in the institutions of nineteen American cities showed an average stay ranging from 5.3 months to 33.3 months, with an average for the nineteen cities of 17 months. (Clapp, *Dependent Children*, in *The Survey*, May 15, 1926, 240). If the data gathered during the present study are representative of our Catholic institutions, and they probably are, the average length of stay in our Catholic child-caring institutions must be between two and three years. If we take even the minimum figure of two years and calculate maintenance at the average rate of about a dollar a day, we find that for every child admitted to an institution, the cost to the institution

and to society averages over \$700. This is not a fortune, but it is no small amount. Furthermore, there is no real charity in contributing funds to take responsibilities off the shoulders of parents who are capable or can be rendered capable of bearing such responsibilities. To do so is not only not charity, but is on the contrary a breach of charity, a serious uncharity, both to the parents themselves and to the children. In addition, the money thus unwisely and unethically expended could be put to far better constructive use in providing more adequate care and service for those children who must and should be removed from their homes and placed in institutions.

Institutional placement often appears to parish or county or court authorities as the easiest way to dispose of a troublesome and knotty domestic situation. But the easiest way is not always the best. Wherever parents are unnecessarily relieved of their God-given responsibilities, grave hurt and injury are done both to parent and child, and the best and kindest intentions in the world do not in the least decrease the hurt and injury. Institutions are often under heavy and at times almost irresistible pressure from the outside to admit children within their walls. Our institutions may not always find it possible successfully to resist such pressure. The fact however that many of our institutions have, as a matter of conscience, resisted and do resist successfully such pressure suggests that other institutions are not entirely helpless. And if such pressure from the outside cannot always under present conditions be successfully withstood, then few more important self-defensive and constructive tasks face the institution than that of uniting its voice and influence with the voice and influence of other interested local and national groups and agencies to bring about a better understanding, among the authorities interested and among the general public, of the principles of justice and charity that are here involved.

(4) *Intake, Discipline, and Training.* Before closing this general discussion of limitation of intake and proceeding to the consideration of practical procedure therein, one final ground for such reasonable limitation may be given, as expressed in an excerpt which calls for no comment.

In 1909 there were admitted to the institution 193 children; last year, only 52. Where relatively large numbers are being received, it is obviously much more difficult to retrain the in-

coming children, to help them adjust themselves to institutional traditions and régime, and to build up traditions of wholesome freedom and discipline, and so forth, than where the intake is more carefully limited. Limitation of intake bears intimately upon the whole program of the institution. (# 88)

b. *Methods and Procedure of Limitation.* Each application for admission to the institution must be dealt with on its own merits and in the light of all the facts discovered by the preadmission investigation. No two cases are exactly alike. Nevertheless, most of the cases tend to fit into certain types. The more important of these types are the following:

(1) *Full orphans*, or children both of whose parents are totally incapacitated by physical or mental illness or other causes. Very frequently relatives of the children may be found who are both able and willing to take the children into their own homes. Ordinarily such a substitute home, is, it is true, not as satisfactory as the child's own home, but is the next best substitute therefor if the near relatives are suitable foster-parents. Full orphans and children of parents who are totally incapacitated for life are also more easily placed in good foster homes. This gives them a chance to be adopted and to make permanent new family ties.

(2) *Half-orphans, the mother dead or incapacitated* by physical or mental illness or other causes. Very frequently the home can be kept together by securing a suitable housekeeper for the father and his children. There is room for much more organized and systematic work on the part of agencies in finding, listing, and recommending good housekeepers. Many fathers do not take kindly to the idea of a housekeeper, but can often be persuaded to make the trial. No matter how carefully the housekeeper be chosen, it often happens that one or more changes must be made before there is finally found a woman who fits well into the family circle and who can in reasonable measure substitute for the mother. In many other cases, it is found possible to locate a boarding home for the widower and his children with near or distant kin or with some other family. Here too one or more shifts of residence may prove necessary before a satisfactory boarding home is found. Under either solution, that

of providing a housekeeper or that of finding a boarding home, help may be needed in a financial way from the local Catholic or other family service agency. Such financial help will usually mount up beyond the limit of small doles, but it will rarely reach the sums that have to be met by the institution and by its generous supporters, if the child is received into the institution.

(3) *The father deserting or else not supporting the family.* In such instances, recourse is had to routine case-work methods. Success is frequently not attained, it is true; but, on the other hand, either by persuasive measures or by appeal to the courts, often the deserting or non-supporting father is brought around to his duty.

(4) *Domestic antagonisms*, in the midst of which either one parent or both of them appeal for the admission of the children to the institution. It is often found that the differences can be reconciled through tactful arbitration. In this case, as in practically all other cases, it is extremely important that the case be followed with the closest cooperation of the parish priest. Often he is able to bring about a reconciliation, where all others fail. Moreover, in nearly all cases involving possible separation of children from their parents and placement in institutions or in foster homes, the parish priest is intimately interested, as the problem is closely linked up with religious and moral considerations.

It is generally agreed that the acceptance of children while a divorce is pending is ordinarily to be avoided. Children are a binding tie between parents. Once this tie is loosened through separation of the children from the parents by admission to an institution, additional encouragement is apt to be given to the permanent disruption of the family. Practice in our institutions regarding this particular point is illustrated in the following excerpts.

If it be discovered that the parents are considering a divorce, the children are refused admission. People do not ordinarily inform you that a divorce is pending. They usually state that the other party cannot be found. In the divorce proceedings, if the children are already in an institution, it will be argued, "The children are being well taken care of," and thus the granting of the divorce is facilitated. (# 72)

Children are not accepted in cases where divorce is pending. (# 81)

As a general policy, children are not accepted if divorce is pending, but exceptions to the policy may be made if investigation should show that the children are imperatively in need of care away from their own home. (# 88)

While the institution does not ordinarily accept children if a divorce between the parents is pending, exception is made in cases where the child may gravely suffer morally or otherwise if immediate protection is not arranged for. (# 39)

In cases where divorce is pending children are not accepted, except in instances in which the children may be exposed to grave moral danger. (# 64)

(5) *Discouraged or shirking parents.* It is not always easy to determine whether in a given case, the parents are honestly discouraged or else are consciously or unconsciously shirking. Frequently they will say: The children will be better off with the sisters. This may be on their part a conclusion reached on rational grounds, or it may be patent rationalization, or it may be sham. If, after intensive investigation, it appears clear or probable that the parents are merely shirking and that the reason alleged for their application is sham or rationalization, the parents must be helped to face and to fulfill their parental responsibilities. Where after full investigation, discouragement and a sense of hopelessness are discovered back of the parents' application, often with a little material or other help, they can be induced to continue their parental task. Sometimes, it is true, the children in such cases would be better off with the sisters, but we have to remember, it is to the parents, and not to anyone else that God has primarily committed the care of children. It is only when parental care has hopelessly or radically broken down that others than parents have the right to step in as substitutes.

(6) *Poverty as the sole or chief reason for application.* The father may be dead, or incapacitated through physical or mental illness, or in prison. He may have deserted, and cannot be located. In other instances the child is illegitimate. The mother in these cases is obliged to work for the support of her children, and finds it impossible to make both ends meet, or to have the children looked

after while she is at work. In her dilemma she appeals to the institutions to accept the children.

It is generally agreed today that poverty alone, in such or similar cases, is not sufficient ground, apart from extremely rare exceptions, for breaking up the home and admitting children to the institution.

Children have been accepted because of poverty alone, but only in cases where they were without parents or relatives and had become wards of the State. (# 64)

Children are not accepted for institutional placement because of poverty alone. The Superintendent holds that in such cases appeal should be made to the mothers' pension or to a family service agency. (# 80, # 88)

Sometimes the mother's problem is solved by having the children cared for in a day nursery during the hours she must work, or else by securing a lodging or boarding home for her where the children will be given attention and supervision during her absence at her employment.

In some cases where the father has been incapacitated through illness or accident incurred in the course of his employment, financial help may be procured through workmen's compensation. In this matter, as in that of mothers' pensions, all who have anything to do with the admission of children to institutions need to be intimately conversant with the local State laws, provisions, and procedures.

More often financial relief for the mother may be procured through mothers' pension provisions. Our institutions and placing agencies are increasingly taking advantage of this humane and highly commendable measure of public assistance (e.g., # 11, # 42, # 66, # 72, # 80). They find that it relieves pressure on the institution, and still more that it keeps the children with their mother. Unfortunately, in a good many states the pensions granted are insufficient in amount. Broader and more generous policies are being adopted here and there. Supplementary amounts may sometimes have to be provided through family service agencies or from other sources.

Where mothers' pensions are not available, appeal can be made to local Catholic or other family service agencies or child welfare

boards to provide such funds as will keep the children with their mother. Naturally, this measure involves something more than the granting of a basketful of groceries each week. It entails expenses that over a course of months may amount to some hundreds of dollars. But, ordinarily it costs no more, and commonly it costs less, so to provide the mother with a pension, than to cover the expenses of institutional care for the child. Such expenses of institutional care, as noted above, easily run into hundreds or even thousands of dollars. Where, for instance, three children are admitted to an institution and remain there for three years, the total cost to the institution and to society will be somewhere around three thousand dollars. Relief expenditures as large as these for a single family are rather unusual. Furthermore, under the family service plan, the children are kept with their mother, and this is the supreme objective.

The contributing public may need a good deal of intensive and persistent education to be reconciled, not necessarily to increase its budget of charity but to expend this budget more wisely. The cost of institutional care is commonly overlooked for the reason that the money is spent, as it were, indirectly for the child rather than given directly to the family or mother. Probably too expenditures for additional children entering an institution are underestimated on the short-sighted ground that the keeping of a child or two more in an institution does not appreciably raise the total institutional costs.

The wide acceptance of the general principle that children should not be received for institutional placement where poverty is the sole or chief consideration is one of the most hopeful and humane developments of modern philosophy and practice in child-caring. This development is in fullest accord with Catholic social tradition on the primacy of the family. The principle is not always or easily applied. But no effort to facilitate its application can be too great.

After thorough investigation has been made of all the circumstances in the case, it may be found impossible to make use of any of the above devices for holding the family together, or else it may be found inadvisable to attempt to do so. Separation, therefore, temporary or permanent, of the child from its home may be called for, with consequent placement in a foster home or institution. Such a decision, however, to separate the child from its home and to place it elsewhere should be made only as a last resort.

No rule of thumb can be formulated by which one can infallibly decide what is best to do in any particular case. Each case has to be judged on its own merits and a decision can be reached only after thorough knowledge of all the conditions has been acquired.

If the home conditions involve grave danger to the morals of the child, separation is necessary. Applying this general principle however to concrete cases requires close study and cautious judgment. Sometimes, one finds very grave neglect or inefficiency on the part of the parents or other guardians of the child. Here too, caution, balanced judgment and what may be called a "sense of reality" are imperatively needed.

As for *caution*, while real emergencies demand quick action, such cases are extremely rare. The proportion of two real emergency cases out of a whole series of 160 applications, as reported recently (1929-30) from one Catholic Charities Bureau (# 355), is probably typical. Even in such rare real emergencies, the child should be cared for elsewhere than in the institution until the investigation of his case is completed. If the diocese has no temporary receiving home, it should have always available one or more boarding homes to which such children can be sent for the time being. Once the child is actually admitted to the institution itself, he is apt to be left there, regardless of the result of the investigation. Removal from a temporary receiving or boarding home is in practice much more easily and simply carried out than is removal from an institution. Better preadmission investigations mean, moreover, fewer 'emergencies'.

Apart from these very rare real emergencies, haste in investigation and admission needs to be made slowly. It is a matter of common experience that family situations, which at first appear urgent, often adjust themselves, if admission of the children to the institution be deferred or denied. Apropos of this point, it may be repeated that the plan of admitting children to entrance quarantine in groups and only at two-week intervals brings a certain pressure to bear upon the family and upon the social worker, as a result of which the family situation frequently adjusts itself or is adjusted without separation of the children from their parents.

As for the "*sense of reality*", we have to deal with parents, not as they may appear in our dreams and ideals, but as they are. Par-

ents in well-to-do or normal homes are on the average far from perfect. We should not expect perfection in parents whose children are referred to agencies.

"The home where the essentials of family life are still to be found, the home where love still reigns, where parents are still attached to one another and to their children, and where parents are ready to make sacrifices for their care, can prepare the child for life much more effectively than any child-caring agency which human ingenuity has ever devised. The mother may be dirty and slovenly; she may be a poor manager; she may be rough in dealing with the children. The father may be of a shiftless type; he may not be the very best type of provider; he may be addicted to the use of harsh and coarse language, but if both parents retain the essential of parental love, if they retain the respect of their children and are willing to provide for them, we should not separate them from the objects of their love and solicitude. We should rather help them to a truer realization of their parental obligations; we should endeavor to guide and direct their love for their children" (O'Grady, in Proc. 4th Annual Meet. of Religious, N.C. C.C., 1923, 271-72).

"One family social worker in a frenzy of excitement knows that the Doe family has reached the breaking point. Mrs. Doe has struggled so long on Mr. Doe's meager salary, adequate if all the pennies are watched, that her nerves are frayed completely. She has become uninterested in her home and developed a rather slovenly attitude. She must have a change of four or five months or she is apt to undergo a complete nervous breakdown. Mr. Doe can't be expected to be patient under such conditions much longer. Arrangements can easily be made for the four children. They are nice young ones and wouldn't be hard to place. The two sisters might go together and the two brothers together. Thus the story runs. . . .

"Effecting the adjustment of the two adults, one to the other, in the family referred to above, is a real challenge not to be postponed. Their ability to bear up under the tensions of family life is not strengthened by the breaking of the home. . . .

"Family case work grew out of the evils of concentrating on work with children as individuals. Let it not forget its

sacred mission which is the conservation of family life. Few homes are ideal. It is not hackneyed to repeat that they remain effective training-grounds even where there is sickness, widowhood, economic need and character failings. What if there is a certain shiftlessness, ignorance of some fundamentals in child-training and disorder in home management? . . . Do we know why out of the same home one child grows into manhood, an adjusted individual, self-reliant, capable, independent, in a word ready to meet life's difficulties, while another child never grows up, remaining somewhat dependent throughout life on the stronger brother or sister?

"Are we sure that the best educated, most intelligent woman makes the wisest mother in the long run? Is it true that the most well-ordered home tends to develop the maximum potentialities of the child? Perhaps such a home may hamper the freedom of the child and discourage initiative. . . .

"Granted the problem is one of chronic shiftlessness, as exemplified by a family whose story was only recently related to the writer, with the proposal of placement for the children, should it terrify the family worker into sudden action? . . .

"The satisfaction most likely to be lacking and in fact the one found wanting in the family referred to by the writer, is ambition. But there was security and real genuine affectionate response and some adventure. Will the foster home make up in ambition for the loss of affectionate response?" (Padgett, *Cath. Char. Rev.*, Apr., 1929, xiii, 117-18).

The theme could be so amplified as to cover many other cases and groups of cases. The important point is constantly to keep in mind that we have not yet reached the heavenly Jerusalem where there is neither marriage nor giving in marriage, but that we are living on this very earthly planet on which marriage and giving in marriage prevail among a very human population which on the average is far removed from such perfection as our highest ideals demand. We may never lower our ideals, but we must often rest content with the imperfect. We may never compromise with principle, but we must continually compromise with reality.

In all cases, the decision to break up or to permit the breaking up of the family and the placing of the children in an institution or

foster home should be arrived at only after consultation with other judicious workers on members of the staff. The wisdom of a Solomon and more than a Solomon is called for if tragic errors in judgment are to be averted. Probably the simplest practical measure to secure systematic joint counsel is the appointment by institutions and agencies of standing committees to advise on applications.

3. PLACING THE CHILD

If the decision is finally arrived at to separate the child from his home or to counsel such separation and to place him elsewhere, the question then arises, Where? In a foster home or in an institution? If in an institution, what kind of an institution, one for delinquents, for defectives, or for dependents? If an institution for dependents, which institution, if there be more than one that is suitable in the given diocese or area? All of these questions have to be answered practically in the light of one supreme consideration, *the needs of the individual child*.

a. *Foster-home Placement.* With the difficult and much discussed problem of the comparative merits of the foster home and of the institution, we shall deal a little more in detail later in the present chapter, in the section on Discharge and Aftercare. Here we may merely call to mind two points: the first, on which there is general agreement, namely, that the choice must often depend in practice on actual local conditions and local social resources; the second, on which there is almost no agreement, namely, what types of children fit better into an institution and what types fit better into a foster-home. Even though foster-home placement be decided upon as the more desirable, temporary residence in an institution may in many cases be desirable for observation and for retraining before placement in the foster home.

b. *Institutional Placement.* Not infrequently it is found that the child for whom application is made for admission to an institution, in reality needs, not placement in a child-caring home, but temporary or more or less prolonged *hospital treatment*. Once proper medical and surgical care is given, the child can often return to and fit well into its own home, without being sent to the institution at all.

A good many of our institutions are adverse to taking children *over the age of twelve or thirteen* (e.g., # 22, # 68, # 112), even

though some of the children already in the institution are well beyond this age. In occasional instances, moral problems may arise. In other cases, the children do not fit readily into the institutional régime. However, in practice it is not always possible to have the children cared for outside the institution.

As regards children who present *grave problems of behavior* and children who are definitely and to a marked degree *mentally subnormal* more or less typical policies are illustrated in the following excerpts;

Feeble-minded children and delinquent or semi-delinquent children are not accepted, if alternative plans are at all possible. Accepting a child who may perhaps demoralize the other children is not approved of. As for mentally subnormal children, plans for their placement outside of the institution should be made at the time of application, for once the institution has accepted a mentally defective child it is not easy to arrange a transfer to an institution for the feeble-minded. Children however who are adjudged only slightly subnormal or who appear to be merely retarded are accepted if chances seem favorable for doing something for them. (# 27)

Some retarded children are admitted, first because there is no other institution in the diocese to care for them, and secondly because it is not deemed advisable to separate the retarded children from the normal children in the same family, and under local conditions it is not always possible to keep the children of the same family together in a foster home. (# 31)

Children who are subnormal mentally are sometimes admitted to the institution, when there is hope of improvement under the training which the institution is capable of giving, and when they cannot be sent to a specialized institution. (# 66)

On account of lack of adequate facilities in the community for the care of children of low-grade mentality and of children presenting behavior problems, the institution has been compelled to accept a number of such children, but regretfully. (# 68)

All children within or outside of institutions present conduct problems. So many children in institutions come from broken homes, that we are not much surprised if we find a higher proportion of

problems and somewhat more difficult ones among children in institutions, as compared with children in normal homes. We take such problems as a matter of course. On the other hand, the behavior problems may be of so grave a nature, that the presence of the child in the institution involves serious hazards to the other children.

Here, again, no rule of thumb can be laid down either as regards admission or "expulsion". A great many behavior problems which from the social and moral standpoint are of the gravest respond readily and rapidly to treatment once close and sympathetic individual study reveals the underlying factors in the case. (See further details in chapter on Moral Training, especially pp. 104-5). In deciding whether a given child who presents behavior problems is to be admitted or not into the institution, two things have to be held in mind; (1) How grave is the misconduct itself? (2) What are the probabilities of response to curative treatment? The child-caring institution is not, it is true, a reformatory, but, on the other hand one of its basic tasks must always be that of re-formation of character, in matters both venial and mortal.

As regards the admission of mentally defective children, there appears to be general agreement in our institutions that, if the child is to a marked degree defective mentally, and if there is a suitable institution for defective children available, the child should be sent to the specialized institution rather than to the child-caring home. The ordinary child-caring home is not equipped, as is the institution for the feeble-minded, for training the mentally defective. It is generally recognized today that the differences in method between the two types of education are very great, and should be if the two types of children are to be satisfactorily trained for life. Some of the peculiar institutional problems raised by the presence of feeble-minded children in the ordinary child-caring home have been touched upon in previous chapters (Mental Health, pp. 199-207; Education, pp. 415-25).

We have to keep in mind continually that distinguishing between feeble-mindedness proper and mere retardation is a very difficult task, unless the most thorough study of the individual child be made. Conclusions drawn from superficial observation are notoriously open to error. Even where intelligence testing has been expertly done and where the results thereof are most carefully inter-

preted in the light of the child's whole history and physical and psychological conditions, conclusions as to feeble-mindedness are very often erroneous, and are proved to be so by the child's marked progress later until skilful educational coaching. If the child-caring institution were to close its doors to children who are merely retarded, it might almost as well close its doors altogether. Nor is refusal of admission called for if the child be only slightly defective mentally or of dull-normal or borderline intelligence. On the other hand if mental defect be notable and be established with reasonable clearness, the child cannot be expected to fit well into the program of the ordinary child-caring institution.

A very grave complication, however, arises from the fact that in many or in most parts of the country, the feeble-minded Catholic child who is refused admission to the Catholic child-caring institution cannot be sent to a Catholic institution for the feeble-minded, because there is none accessible. As a consequence, if admission be refused to the child-caring home, there is no alternative but that of sending the child to a state institution. This raises the question of the child's religious training. Mentally defective children tend to be more suggestible than the normally minded ones and to be more influenced by environment. If consequently the normal child needs to be reared under Catholic training and environment, the subnormal child needs this all the more.

The following extracts, from two letters sent by a Catholic boy from the state institution to which he had been transferred, illustrate one angle of the problem.

Dear Sister: I wish I could go to midnight Mass on Christmas and also on Sundays and holydays of the Church. Please see if you can come and take me out for Christmas, so I can go to church on Christmas. Please send me a catechism, so I can keep my Catholic religion. . . .

Dear Sister: I do not go to Catholic services on Sunday. I haven't been to church since last Jan. 1 [letter is dated Dec. 13]. . . .

We do not know how widespread such conditions are, and, for obvious reasons, we give no clue to the actual state institution here referred to. The extracts suggest strongly that, even where urgent

necessity demands that the Catholic child be sent to state institutions for the mentally defective, Catholic religious services and training for him should be provided therein. There are few if any state institutions but gladly welcome such services and training for their Catholic children. Catholic child-caring institutions and charity bureaus have a responsibility in the way of "aftercare" for such children, at least the responsibility of presenting the facts to the local diocesan authorities. But let us return to our broader problem.

The child-caring home cannot ordinarily do full justice to the mentally defective child; but, if a Catholic child is refused admission, whither shall we send him? We know no easy solution of this puzzling dilemma. We do know that there is great and urgent need for more adequate Catholic institutional provision for Catholic feeble-minded dependent children. The situation raises the very fundamental question: In view of the populational decrease in so many of our institutions, and in view of the urgent need for more adequate provision for mentally defective dependents, what broad regional or nation-wide program for caring for them shall we work for and carry into execution? The best solution of the dilemma probably lies along the line of providing regional institutions, perhaps one for each archdiocese, or one at least for each of the fifteen ecclesiastical provinces. In view of the fact that, in many of our three hundred child-caring homes in the United States, the population has notably decreased, might it not be well for us to give thought to the possibility of a few of them voluntarily shifting from the unspecialized care of dependent children to the specialized care of mentally defective children?

4. PREADMISSION INVESTIGATION

a. *Need and Purposes.* Thorough preadmission study is imperative in the interest of the child, the home, and the institution. Only in the light of the full knowledge of facts can the welfare of all concerned be safeguarded, for ordinarily only in the light of such knowledge can we expect to act wisely and to avoid grave missteps in making the following three major decisions. First, can the family be kept together? In other words, are conditions such that the child can be kept with its parents or other near relatives? Instead of separation, are there available alternatives for maintaining the in-

tegrity of the family? Secondly, if separation be advisable or necessary, where shall the child be placed? In a foster home or in an institution? If in the latter, what type of institution should be selected? A specialized type or else a general child-caring institution? If in a child-caring home, which one? Thirdly, if the child is to be placed in a child-caring home, what plans should be made for the child's future? Will the placement probably be a temporary or a permanent one? What does the child need in the way of physical, mental and moral cure and retraining? What plans are feasible for the rehabilitation of the child's family and for the return of the child to its own home?

b. *Methods of Investigation.* The gathering of data needed for prudent decision ordinarily calls for the service of a trained worker. With the personnel of investigation we shall deal in the following section. The present section will be devoted to a brief outline of methods of investigation.

The technical procedure differs in detail from institution to institution as it differs in detail from case to case. But certain broad lines of procedure are recognized as desirable for all cases and for all institutions. Methods in all instances have as their primary purpose the securing of such information as is required for making the decisions outlined above. The following broad lines of procedure represent a composite picture of methods in use in a large number of our institutions.

(1) *Application.* At the time of application some preliminary data are gathered from the applicant either by personal interview or by correspondence. An application blank, fairly detailed, is filled out.

(2) *Confidential Exchange.* The next step is to clear the case through the local confidential exchange. By this means valuable short-cuts may be made to important information and sources of information. Often a very large proportion of the needed information is already recorded among other institutions and agencies, and a vast amount of time and of labor is saved. Also important clues are frequently obtained as to the persons who can be visited with profit.

(3) *Visits.* These preliminary data being gathered, visits are made to the home, the pastor, the school attended by the children, the employer if necessary, and such relatives, friends or others as

are in a position to give the desired information. It often happens that those who can best give information reside in another city or state. In such cases, it may be necessary to resort to correspondence, but better results are usually obtained if representatives of an agency or institution in the distant city or state be reached and asked to get the desired information by personal visit and to forward it to the investigator. An interview with the parent or parents at the institution or agency at the time of application is quite insufficient. Even a visit to the home is rarely sufficient.

(4) *Information Needed.* Full information is needed regarding both the child and the family.

(a) *Regarding the Child*, full information is needed along the following lines: date and place of birth; religious record,—including baptism and baptismal record, first communion, confirmation, religious instruction, attendance at church, parochial school or Sunday school; behavior record,—including character traits, behavior problems, court record if any; personality, disposition, emotional reactions, likes and dislikes, interests, aspirations, ambitions, hobbies; mentality and education,—including school record and, particularly if there be any indication of retardation or mental defect, the child's IQ; health,—including developmental and medical history, present physical condition, heredity; environment and play or work associates.

(b) *Regarding the Family*, full information is called for under the following chief headings: birth and death records of family, marriage and marital status of father and mother, and vital data regarding other children and adults in household; religious and moral conditions of parents and in home; mental record,—including education, and any indications of insanity or feeble-mindedness in family or family stock; physical health of parents; finances,—including occupation, income, family budget; attitude to, care of, and control over, children on part of parents; environment,—including type of home and neighborhood; full data on relatives, paternal and maternal,—including type of service they are able and willing to render.

Ordinarily a thorough physical examination of the child is given prior to admission to the institution. The practice is increasing in our institutions of requiring a mental examination, to discover

the child's capabilities and deficiencies. Both the physical and mental examinations are advisable as part of the routine procedure *before* admission, quite apart from such examinations as are given *upon or after* admission. These preadmission examinations are of distinct value, particularly in furnishing information as to where the child should be placed, if a decision be reached to permit separation of child from its own parents. Placement in a specialized institution rather than in the ordinary child-caring home, or else hospital treatment prior to admission to the home, is not infrequently advisable. Confusion, time, and labor are saved, if these dispositions be made before actual admission to the home.

The foregoing summary of the required information gives only general headings. Full information under each of these headings is called for in nearly all cases. The blanks in use are usually much more detailed. They differ very considerably, however, in details from institution to institution and from agency to agency. In all cases of investigation, it may be re-emphasized, the investigator needs constantly to hold in mind the triple purpose of the investigation itself as outlined at the beginning of the present section. The amount of information that can be gathered in a single case is indefinitely large, and our available personnel for making investigation is everywhere limited. In view of these two facts, no little discrimination is required to gather pertinent and useful information and to avoid heaping up information that is relatively of little use. One can never tell at what time a given bit of information may be of value. Theoretically, the more information, the better. Actually, however, we have to recognize our limitations of time and personnel. Incidentally, tact and good judgment are required to avoid even the appearance of prying.

c. *Personnel.* The procedure and technique of investigation are fairly uniform in institutions. As regards however the question of personnel for investigation, wide differences prevail, depending upon local resources, traditions, and laws. The following are the chief prevalent plans.

(1) *Social Worker on Staff of Institution.* A few of the institutions studied (# 30, # 39, # 63, # 68, # 81) have on their staff a social worker whose duty it is to make investigation of all applications, prior to admission. The plan appears to work out very sat-

isfactorily in the experience of the institutions. Under this plan, as it operates practically, the institution has at its disposal full information upon all children admitted. Furthermore the plan brings about centralization of effort and avoidance of divided responsibilities. The institution gets a better view of the whole child and of his background. It goes without saying that under this plan the institutional worker needs to keep in close contact with the local child-placing agencies and other local institutions in order to avoid friction, overlapping, and duplication of effort.

(2) *Investigation by Outside Agencies.* The more prevalent practice in our institutions is to have applications investigated by a local child-placing agency, usually the diocesan or community Catholic Charities bureau, or similar agency (e.g., # 9, # 11, # 12, # 46, # 54, # 65, # 79, # 88, # 91). In other institutions applications are accepted upon previous investigation by a Catholic, a community or a State agency.

Most children are received through State or city commitment; a small percentage through the Catholic charities office. (# 7)

All admissions come through Catholic charities, State board, city, or one of the counties. (# 67)

The plan of relying for preadmission investigation upon social workers from outside agencies is very commonly a matter of economy of time and finance. Where all investigations are carried out by an agency covering the local diocese, community or area, there may be less danger of duplication of effort and of overlapping. Care must be taken under this plan to safeguard the autonomy of the institution. Furthermore it is extremely important that full data upon the child and the child's family as revealed by the investigation should be transmitted to the institution at the time of the child's admission. The practice, still to a considerable extent prevalent, of sending to the institution only very meager data on the child admitted is happily passing, if we may judge from the facts revealed in the present study. But a good deal remains to be done in this respect.

Catholic Welfare Bureau submits to the institution full data on child and family. The sister superior finds this informa-

tion of great value for dealing both with the children and with the parents or guardians and relatives. (# 46)

It helps much, if both institution and agency agree to use the same face-sheet. (# 317)

Without such knowledge the institution has either to duplicate in some measure the investigation or else lacks much knowledge that is of very practical value in carrying out its work. In case an application is referred by the institution to an agency for investigation, and upon investigation it is found inadvisable and unnecessary to separate the child from its home and place it in the institution, some notification of the decision should of course be sent to the institution.

Where the institution accepts the children on the recommendation of outside agencies, standards may unfortunately be considerably lowered, as some courts and agencies make very superficial investigations. For this and for other reasons, institutions do not always find it advisable to accept recommendations from outside agencies. Institutions should work hand in hand with other community forces to raise standards of courts and agencies.

The Catholic Charities ordinarily makes its own investigation and seldom accepts the investigation from another agency. This practice prevails because the other agencies do not provide the type of investigation desired. If the Catholic Charities has been in on a case handled by another agency and if a full synopsis of the case is given, the investigation will be accepted. Ordinarily, however, other agencies refer a case to Catholic charities for investigation. (# 88)

In some cities a working arrangement has been reached, whereby the court notifies the institution or agency in advance in cases of prospective placement. This gives opportunity for independent investigation, as a result of which some plan other than institutional placement is often carried out. (# 317)

(3) *Joint Placing Agencies.* This plan is in operation in only two of the communities studied.

The local Children's Bureau makes investigations for twenty-two local Catholic and non-Catholic institutions. After the

investigation is completed the facts are referred to the Catholic charities office with a definite recommendation as to the program advised for the particular child. These recommendations are made to the director of the Catholic charities in regard to Catholic children, because the Children's Bureau has been requested by him to do so. The final decision however is made by the Catholic charities office in cooperation with the institution. The plan has worked very well. A synopsis of the social investigation is also forwarded to the institution upon the admission of the child. This plan has been in operation for seven years and has worked to the satisfaction of all. (# 66)

Which of the above three plans is best, all things considered, is not easy to decide. A fuller discussion of their relative merits may be found in the Bulletin of the Child Welfare League of America, March, 1930, ix, 2-3. Each has its peculiar advantages. Moreover, the actual choice of plan will have to depend in large measure upon local conditions and resources.

The main point is that thorough preadmission investigation be made by a trained and experienced social worker who is not burdened with too heavy a case load.

Such thorough investigation is not only for the welfare of the child, the home, and the institution, but in the long run and even in the short run is a distinct measure of financial economy. Our institutions that have their own social worker or that rely upon investigations by outside agencies have found it possible to cut down their intake, and hence their expenses, very appreciably. If through adequate preadmission study even five applications a year are satisfactorily disposed of other than by admission to the institution, the saving to the institution will be on the average between three and four thousand dollars,—conservatively calculating the average stay at two years and the average cost per child at about \$350.00 per year. This saving covers a trained worker's salary, with a large margin. And unless the institution is one of the smallest, many more than five applications will ordinarily be disposed of satisfactorily without admission. The employment of a competent worker not only makes for the better interests of all concerned. It also pays. It is a

measure of economy. But above all, it begets the best results for child, family, and institution.

It may be suggested that in the case of very small institutions, the relatively small expense entailed by a full-time worker's salary, can be further cut down, either by paying a per capita amount to an agency for each case investigated, or by employing a full-time worker jointly with other smaller institutions, each institution paying on a pro rata basis. Both of these plans are in use here and there in our institutions and work well.

A word may be added regarding the worker's case load. It is a very common feeling among our institutions, bureaus, and social workers that the actual prevalent case loads are much too large. This may be due in part to a dearth of competent workers. A lighter case load makes not only for more thorough and beneficial results but also in the long run for financial saving on admissions.

A final point,—one on which there is seemingly a pretty general agreement among the institutions studied,—has been briefly and clearly expressed in the following quotation:

"The superintendent should not be expected to make the investigations. . . . The superintendent has enough to do managing the institution, and he could not devote time to investigation without neglecting his other duties.

"Volunteer workers seldom have the experience necessary to make adequate investigations or the time to devote to it. This work demands the best type of experienced social worker, just as a physician of recognized standing should be called upon for a diagnosis of the child's physical condition." (Handbook for Institutions, U. S. Children's Bureau, publ. no. 170, p. 39).

5. RESPONSIBILITY FOR ADMISSIONS

It is of course important that final responsibility for accepting or rejecting applications should be definitely fixed. The more prevalent custom among our institutions is for such responsibility to rest upon the superintendent. Where preadmission investigations are made by a social worker attached to the institutional staff, or where the superintendent of the institution is also director of the diocesan charities or placing agency, procedure is simple. In other

cases, it goes without saying that cordial cooperation and teamwork between the institution and the investigating agency are required. The following excerpt illustrates some of the types of adjustment that may be called for in such a case:

All applications for admission are investigated by the diocesan Catholic Charities which forwards its recommendations to the institution. In the last analysis the superintendent of the institution decides whether or not the child should be received. In some instances, further investigation is asked of the Catholic Charities by the superintendent. In some instances, too, the superintendent suggests other plans for the care of the child. Where there is a difference of view as to whether a particular child should be admitted, a conference is arranged between the institutional social worker and the case supervisor of Catholic Charities, for the purpose of further discussing the details of the case and of arriving at a satisfactory solution. (# 68)

The decision to accept or reject an application is such an important and far-reaching one that, no matter in whose hands the final responsibility for the decision rests, previous consultation is imperative. Such consultation may be had either through a standing case committee or else more informally.

6. TERMS OF ACCEPTANCE

Voluntary surrenders of children by parents are not accepted in any of the institutions studied from which information on this point was obtained. Court surrenders are accepted by some institutions, but not by all. Children are ordinarily received on court commitment, temporary or permanent, or else through voluntary application from parent or other responsible party without transfer of legal custody.

Voluntary surrenders have not, as a policy, been for the better interests either of children or of parents. They have tended to make for parental evasion and shirking. On the other hand, where the child has to be separated from parents who are unfit on account of neglect, cruelty, immorality or other grave causes, appeal to the court for legal custody, temporary or permanent, may be necessary in order to protect the best interests of the child and to make and execute adequate plans for him.

Inasmuch as the conditions of surrender and commitment are largely determined and controlled by local laws and procedure, it appears unnecessary to enter here into further details. In this matter, as in so many other phases of institutional care, those responsible for institutional policies have to be guided very largely by local legislation and judicial procedure, and of course need to be intimately familiar with the details of such legislation and procedure.

Where the child is voluntarily entrusted to the institution for temporary care, it is well that the signed agreement include, not only the entrustment of guardianship, but also parental consent to medical measures necessary, as well as terms of payment. The following form of agreement in use in one of our institutions (# 88) is given by way of illustration.

The _____ Catholic Charities
(City, State)

AGREEMENT

(Place, date)

The undersigned _____
(Name) (Address)

_____ of _____
(Parents, Father, (Names of Children)
Mother, Guardian, etc.)

_____ desires that said children be received for care by The _____ Catholic Charities and, therefore, does hereby entrust to The _____ Catholic Charities the temporary guardianship of said children.

It is hereby consented and agreed by the undersigned that any minor surgical operation advised by the Medical Staff, such as the removal of tonsils, adenoids, etc., vaccination, dentistry and any surgical work required in emergency shall be performed on the above mentioned children without further permission of parent or guardian.

It is further agreed that children will not be released from the care of The _____ Catholic Charities until the arrangements for their care elsewhere have been thoroughly investigated and approved as proper and satisfactory in every respect.

Visitors may meet children only in the place assigned to them. Visiting hours:

Parents and guardians must inform Organization of change of address.

Court proceedings will be instituted against any parent who wilfully neglects to provide for a child.

I, the undersigned, hereby agree to abide by all the Rules and Regulations of The _____ Catholic Charities and to pay per _____ \$ _____ toward the support of said children. Payments are to be made _____.

(Parents, Father, Mother, Guardian)

7. PAYMENTS

If parents, relatives, or guardians are able to pay in full or in part for the child during its residence in the institution, every reasonable measure should be taken to require them to do so. If the data on parental payments gathered during the present study are representative, it would seem that in the average institution between forty and fifty per cent of the children are kept entirely free, part or full payment being made for the remaining fifty to sixty per cent. The following are three fairly representative tabulations, showing however considerable difference in detail.

For about 50% of the children no payment is made; for about 25%, part payment; for about 25%, full payment. (# 75)

For about 50% of the children no payment is made; for about 25% an average of \$5.00 a month is received; for about 20%, from \$5.00 to \$10.00 a month; for about 5%, from \$10.00 to \$15.00 a month. (# 71)

The 180 children represent 78 families. Of these 78 families 34 (45%) pay nothing; 12 (15%) pay less than \$5.00 a month; 6 (8%), between \$5.00 and \$10.00; 10 (12%), between \$10.00 and \$20.00; 16 (20%), over \$20.00. (# 88)

A great many institutions (e.g., # 11, # 14, # 68, # 71, # 75, # 81, # 88, # 91) require a signed contract. Some institutions consider it worth while to have this contract signed before a notary

public. Both the signed contract and the affidavit help to add a little more solemnity to the financial and other responsibilities toward the child.

Terms differ considerably from institution to institution. The more general custom is to establish a fixed rate ranging usually from about \$15.00 to \$25.00 a month, per child. One institution (# 72) has a fixed rate of \$25.00 a month if both parents are living; otherwise, a rate of \$20.00. In all cases, however, this amount is reduced if the income of the parents or others responsible for the child is not sufficient to pay the fixed rate. The common procedure in such cases is to work out a detailed family budget of income and expenses, and gauge the rate of payment accordingly. This is clearly an advisable procedure. Such budgets can usually be worked out to within five or ten per cent of accuracy in any given locality.

Where the institution is in direct relation with the local Catholic Charities or agency, payments are sometimes made at the charities or agency office. While local conditions may make this plan desirable, on the other hand direct payment to the institution has the distinct advantage of increasing contacts between the parents or guardians and the staff of the institution, and of increasing the opportunities for consultation and joint counsel in planning for the welfare both of the child and of the family. At any rate, to avoid confusion and evasion it is better to have a definite understanding that payments are to be made either to the institution only or to the agency office only, unless the charities office happens to be located at the institution itself.

It is commonly found that sending out a monthly statement to those financially responsible for the child helps a little to keep them more faithful in their payments. One institution (# 72) has a fixed monthly day of payment, the first Sunday of each month, as this day follows shortly after pay day.

Where payment is made by city or state, usually such payment falls considerably short of meeting the per capita expenses of maintenance of the child. For instance, in one institution in which per capita cost is ninety-seven cents a day, the state pays only fifty-five cents a day; in another in which the weekly cost is \$7.95, the state pays only \$6.00. It would seem only equitable that inasmuch as institutions are not endowed and are dependent on the generosity of

contributors, payment by the state should be adjusted to per capita costs. One institution, through negotiations with the county board of supervisors and with the local community chest, has recently found it possible to obtain an increase of payment for county wards from \$20.00 to \$27.50 per month,—the latter figure coming appreciably closer to per capita institutional costs.

It is common experience that a large proportion of parents, relatives and guardians who are in reality able to pay in part or in full for the child, evade this responsibility. The more common custom among institutions is to get in touch by letter with those financially responsible, when payments cease or fall off. It is usually, however, more effective to have a personal interview with the parent, relative or guardian, either at the institution when the responsible party visits the child, or else through personal visit to the responsible party in his or her home. The personal interview is more effective than letters or statements.

Some institutions and charity bureaus find it advisable to bring somewhat greater pressure to bear upon those who are able to pay but who neglect or refuse to do so. The following excerpt illustrates one such procedure:

If parents who can pay fail to do so, and this condition continues and cannot be met in other ways, the child is committed by the court as a neglected and dependent child, and legal guardianship is made out to the institution, such guardianship lasting so long as the court finds advisable and necessary.
(# 71)

Types of pressure, such as refusal to allow parents to visit children, which might tend to weaken family ties are not advisable. In all instances of failure to meet payments, careful case work to determine the cause or causes should be routine.

Some institutions hesitate to appeal to court action to enforce payment, as they feel that this procedure might easily be misunderstood in the community. Other institutions and bureaus take the position that recourse to court action is not only justified but distinctly advisable in the interests of all concerned, if the parent or guardian is able to carry out reasonable financial responsibilities, but is unwilling to do so. Consequently, if the payments in such cases

are not met, in last resort the case is taken to court and support required from parents or guardian by court action (# 7, # 72, # 112).

C. RESIDENCE

After the child has been admitted to the institution two major tasks present themselves, that of rebuilding the child, and that of rebuilding the child's home and family. Most children who enter an institution need more or less physical, mental, moral or religious rebuilding. Such rebuilding is carried out through the whole program of the institution and has been dealt with in detail in other chapters. Rebuilding the child's home and family is called for in a very high proportion of cases, and is just as imperative as the task of rebuilding the child. The chief problems that arise from these two tasks will be dealt with in the present section under three headings: long-time versus short-time residence; rehabilitating the home; periodical review of cases.

I. LONG-TIME VERSUS SHORT-TIME RESIDENCE

Whether children should be kept in the institution for a long or for a short term of residence is a question on which policies appear at first sight to differ considerably in our institutions. The following are some typical examples.

The institution is inclined to favor long-time residence, especially for children who are in the upper school grades. Such long-time residence gives the child opportunity to go through the institution's well-equipped trade school and to fit himself for his life work. (# 14)

The institution is more in favor of longer residence, as thereby the girl is given a better chance for such education and training as will enable her to become self-supporting and independent at graduation. (# 81)

"If by institutional care is meant the keeping of a child in the institution from its admittance until the child reaches the age of fourteen or sixteen years or even older, then I am unalterably opposed to it. Children so retained become mere hothouse plants, unable to meet the serious demands of life in the world." (# 72)

It is the general policy of the institution to place the children in foster homes, so soon as the children are properly prepared for such placement. (# 71)

The prevalent drift in our institutions is toward short-time residence. Such seemingly sharp differences of view as are expressed in the foregoing typical excerpts can be largely reconciled.

The basic principle that the child's place is with his own parents or relatives is universally recognized. From this it follows obviously that where separation of the child from his home has been necessary, his return thereto should take place so soon as conditions therein warrant. On the other hand, the child may have neither parents nor relatives, or else these may be hopelessly and permanently unfit.

In view of these facts, the following practical policies may be suggested:

If suitable relative can be found, or if one or both parents be living and home and family life can be rebuilt, the child should be returned to his home or to such relatives at the earliest moment possible. The advisability of early discharge to adoption, free, boarding, or "opportunity" working homes should be given full consideration. If, however, there be no other suitable relatives, and no possibility of rebuilding the child's own home and if foster-home placement be not advisable or feasible in the case, then long-time residence in the institution becomes necessary. Generally speaking, the actual policy of short-time residence with allowance made for exceptional cases, seems best in harmony with the Catholic principle of the primacy of the family.

In any case, it is abundantly clear that keeping children at an institution when parents are capable or can be rendered capable of looking after the children is a policy not in conformity with either Catholic or current social principles. No rule of thumb can be formulated. Each case must be judged on its own merits, and a decision arrived at in the light of full knowledge both of the child and of home conditions. Two heads are usually better than one in such delicate problems. While the final responsibility for the de-

cision must be definitely fixed,—perhaps on some one person's shoulders,—consultation in practically all cases is eminently desirable.

2. REHABILITATING THE HOME

In a great many cases, it is of course not possible to rebuild the home, as the child may have no parents or relatives, or else the parents or relatives may be hopelessly unfit. On the other hand, where the child's home conditions are such as to offer reasonable hope of future habilitation, *every effort needs to be put forth to rebuild the child's home* and to make his return thereto possible and advisable. Two objectives demand attention in this connection: first, that of conserving home and family ties and affection; secondly, that of rehabilitating the home itself. The following brief excerpt illustrates how one of our institutions endeavors to attain these two objectives.

Where possible, the nucleus of the family is preserved by leaving one at least of the children in the home. Thus an anchorage is provided for parents who might lose interest in their children if relieved entirely of parental responsibility. In order to keep alive the ties between children, parents and other relatives, the children are permitted to spend one day a month outside the institution with parents or relatives, if the relatives or parents be reasonably fit. Frequent visiting by parents and relatives is permitted and encouraged. Meanwhile, the social worker connected with the Catholic Charities keeps in as close touch as possible with parents and relatives. Every effort is made to preserve such continuous and close contact as will enable the Catholic Charities Bureau to know of every significant change in family circumstances. In view of the heavy case load of the worker responsible for this follow-up work, a certain amount of it has regretfully to be done by letter.

To the maximum extent possible, however, the follow-up is done by personal visits. At least twice a year, the director of the institution and the social worker review in conference each child's case and outline together a plan for the child for the succeeding few months. (# 88)

a. *Conservation of Family Ties.* Three of the methods for safeguarding and conserving the existing home ties and family af-

fections,—visiting of parents or relatives by the children, visiting of the children by parents or relatives, leaving at least one child at home,—are mentioned in the foregoing excerpt. The problem of visiting has been discussed in some detail in the chapter on Discipline. In the full measure possible, it is important to keep alive the ties between brothers and sisters of the same family, by facilitating companionship for them, and by encouraging mutual offices and acts of kindness and helpfulness between them. The institutions that receive both boys and girls are thus better situated for preserving and strengthening ties between brothers and sisters. If brothers and sisters *have* to be placed in different institutions or homes, ample opportunity for visiting and communicating needs to be provided. Letters, Easter and Christmas cards, and presents, gifts of clothing, toys, and so forth, are also valuable means of preserving family loyalties. An equally important means of preserving parental affection and sense of responsibility is insistence upon parents bearing, in whole or in part, financial responsibility for their children in the institution. All of these methods are in fairly common use in the institutions included in the present study.

b. *Rehabilitation Proper.* A fuller discussion of methods, with illustrative cases, will be given in the section on Discharge and Aftercare. Here we shall confine our attention more to the question of personnel.

The same difference in personnel for family rehabilitation obtains as in the matter of preadmission investigation. In some institutions, responsibility for follow-up work in the child's home after his admission to the institution remains in the hands of an outside agency. In others, the institution does its own follow-up through its own social worker.

The responsibility of contact with the child's home rests mainly upon Catholic Charities. The sisters' chief contact with the members of the child's family is that which comes about when parents or relatives visit the children on visiting days. The sisters concentrate chiefly upon rebuilding the child during his stay in the institution, and leave largely to the Catholic Charities the task of rehabilitating the child's home. (# 88, # 112)

After the child is admitted to the institution, the responsibility for rebuilding the child's home is turned over to the institu-

tional worker from the Catholic Charities. She keeps in touch with the child's family and home conditions, *and of course in close touch with the head of the institution.* (# 91)

It is usually found preferable for follow-up work with the family to be done by the same social worker who has been responsible for the preadmission investigation. The reasons for this preference are obvious.

The social worker from the Catholic Charities Bureau is responsible for preadmission investigations as well as for follow-up work on the family and for making plans for the children's return to their family where conditions warrant such return. (# 9)

The social worker who is responsible for preadmission investigation is also responsible for family follow-up as well as for investigation previous to discharge. (# 88, # 112)

Where a social worker from an outside Catholic or community agency is doing the follow-up work on the family during the child's residence, a considerable amount of contact between the worker and the institutional staff is called for. The staff must rely largely on the social worker for information about conditions prevalent in the child's home and family. The social worker must rely largely upon the institutional staff for information regarding changes in the child's own condition. The decision as to whether the child should be returned to his home or not, must be made from full knowledge both of the home and of the child.

This necessity for contact and common counsel between staff and social worker raises an administrative problem which is met in different ways in different institutions. The more general custom among our institutions is for the contact to take place mainly between the social worker and the head of the institution. In favor of this plan it is generally held that procedure is simplified, confusion is avoided, and time is saved. It is further felt by many that, for the present at least and in the main, better results are attained in rebuilding the child if the staff members are less fully acquainted with some of the details of the child's home and family background.

Other institutions follow the policy of encouraging direct contact between the social worker and the individual members of the institu-

tional staff. Information is freely and frankly exchanged between them. The knowledge obtained by the social worker from the staff member most intimately in touch with the individual child throws important light on the family situation. The knowledge obtained by the staff member of the background of the children under her immediate charge gives her a fuller insight into the child's problems, limitations, and possibilities.

One institution operates under the following plan:

Direct contact between social worker, cottage mother, and class teacher is encouraged. Formerly any one of the score of social workers from the local agency would come to the institution and get in direct contact with the individual staff member. The system proved a little confusing. One social worker was therefore chosen by the agency to serve as liaison officer between the members of the staff and the workers from the agency. She visits the institution once a week, discusses with staff members the progress of the children under their care, and maintains all agency contacts with the institution. (# 66)

Between these three plans,—head of institution and worker, staff members and workers, staff members and liaison worker,—it is not easy to choose. Each plan has its own values as well as limitations. Theoretically direct contact between worker and staff member should make for best results. Practically, this may not always be possible or advisable. We should, however, work toward this end as fast and insofar as local conditions permit. The main point is that during the child's residence every possible effort should be put forth both to refit the child for return to family life and to refit the family, where at all possible, for the return of the child thereto. Who does this work and by what exact administrative procedure it is done are matters of secondary importance.

Apart from home rehabilitation through systematic social work, a great deal can be and is being done by less formal methods. A great many of our institutions plan to have parents, relatives, or guardians meet, on visiting days, the members of the staff, particularly the members of the staff immediately in charge of the particular child. Parents and relatives will often speak more freely and openly to the sisters than to the social worker. In a great many

institutions, strong influence for good is thus brought to bear upon parents and relatives, and much is quietly done towards rebuilding broken home and family life. This influence is particularly effective in moral and religious problems, such as bringing about domestic reconciliations, building up better habits of temperance and morality, and bringing back negligent parents to their religious duties. Furthermore, through these informal consultations between the sisters and the parents or relatives, a great deal of information is gleaned regarding both the child and the home conditions, which information is most helpful both in rebuilding the child and in rebuilding the home. As the staff members stand to the child in the place of the child's parents, such interchange of information and counsel between parents and staff members has been found very helpful to everyone concerned.

3. PERIODICAL REVIEW OF CASES

Our institutions are increasingly recognizing the value of *periodical reviews* of the cases of all children in the institution. The purpose of the review is to determine which of the children should be *retained in the institution, returned to their own homes, placed in foster homes, or transferred to other institutions*. In the constant whirl of institutional duties, it is so easy and so human to forget and to put off, unless we tie or commit ourselves through formal and systematic measures to some such *periodical* review of cases. The institutions that operate under this system have found it to be of very real value. The following excerpts give data on some details and purposes of the review:

The social workers from the several Catholic Bureaus of the diocese come to the institution semiannually to visit the children placed there by their respective bureaus, to secure supplementary information upon the progress of the child, and to discuss with the institutional social worker developments both in the child's family and in the child's own life. The plan is carried out systematically, and it is hoped in time to have the periodical review made quarterly instead of, as at present, semiannually. (# 52)

The social worker at the institution reviews each three months with the worker from the Catholic Charities all cases of child-

ren under the care of the institution. Each worker goes to the institution for the purpose of reviewing with the institutional worker the cases under her direction. The periodic review is an incentive to the Catholic Charities workers to maintain close contact with the family having children at the institution, and induces them to keep up active work with these families. The institution has drawn up a definite outline on which the Catholic Charities workers report at the end of each three-month period. (# 68)

At least twice each year, the director of the institution and the social worker from the Catholic Charities review jointly each child's case and determine upon a plan for the child that will cover the following few months. (# 88)

We have no hesitation, in view of the excellent results reported, in recommending wholeheartedly the adoption of the periodical review system to all our child-caring homes.

D. DISCHARGE AND AFTERCARE

Policies and procedure in discharge and aftercare are of extreme importance. A system of indiscriminate discharge is apt to do almost as much harm as a system of indiscriminate admission. The same thorough study of the child and of its home or prospective foster home, the same full knowledge of the significant facts, the same balanced judgment and caution in decision, are called for in discharges as in admissions. And in most cases, after the discharge of the child from the institution, appropriate measures of aftercare are demanded, if the training and retraining given the child during its residence in the institution are to carry over into its life outside and to bear the fruit they were intended to bear. In this section, we shall deal, first with the problem of discharge, and next with the related but distinct one of aftercare.

I. DISCHARGE

a. *To Whom.* By far the largest number of children in our institutions are discharged to parents or relatives. Nearly all the others are discharged either to foster homes or to other institutions, or else on leaving the institution assume economic independence in the world.

(1) *To Parents or Relatives.* Where conditions permit, discharge to parents or to relatives is of course the most desirable. The following cases suggest some typical problems that arise and some methods in use for solving these problems.

Case 1. The mother died in 1924. The father was a chronic alcoholic, and would not support the children: Ruth, aged 15; John, aged 13; William, aged 11; Jane, aged 9; Helen, aged 6; Thomas, aged 4. On the death of the mother, Helen had been placed by the father with relatives. The other five children were committed by the juvenile court to the care of the institution. Ruth was permitted to remain in the home of a relative and to attend day school. The youngest child, Thomas, owing to his weakened physical condition, was sent to a hospital. The three children, John, William and Jane, were received in the institution. All of the children, except Thomas, were in good health.

After the children's admission to the institution the father continued drinking heavily. He claimed that all his relatives were against him and that this was one of the reasons why he drank. He was very much discouraged and felt that it was not worth while trying to straighten up as the whole world seemed against him. He had lost not only his home and his job but also his courage and his ambition. On one of his visits to the institution to see the children, he was spoken to kindly with a view of getting him to reassume responsibility for his children. He was promised that if he would stop drinking and secure work the institution would aid him to establish a home of his own and to have his children return to him. The appeal was based on his obvious affection for his children and on his own love of home and comfort.

Two months later he called, this time almost sober. He had secured work, and he promised to hold the job. Three months later he was again drinking heavily and again very much discouraged. The chances of getting on his feet seemed slim. One of the children, Jane, was placed in a very good foster home. When the father, on calling again at the institution, learned that the child had been placed, his bitterness and dejection were aggravated. Pressure was, however, brought to bear upon him, on the ground that unless he changed his ways it would be necessary to place the other children as well.

Meanwhile, Thomas who had been sent to the hospital had steadily improved, so much so that it was possible to place him in a good boarding home.

Some months later, when the father called, he presented an entirely different appearance. He was clean-shaven, was dressed neatly, had not been drinking for several weeks, and announced that he intended to work steadily and to establish his own home. He brought the children some clothes and pleaded for the return of Jane to the institution and for the removal of Helen from the family in which she had been placed. It was found on investigation that the father of this latter family was a drinking man and that the home was far from being desirable.

Six months later the children's father was calling at the institution regularly. He was then holding his job and was keeping entirely from alcoholic indulgence. It was felt that, in view of his long history of drinking and shiftlessness, a further probation was necessary. He was, therefore, advised that his children would be taken care of in the institution for another year, and that, if he showed by his record that he was able to take care of them, they would be returned to him, but that otherwise it would be necessary to place them in foster homes. He kept both sober and at work throughout the year, bought furniture to re-establish his home, and rented a house. The children at the end of the time stipulated were returned to him and the home re-established, with the family very happy in their new surroundings and with the father, sober, working, and ambitious for and proud of both his children and himself.

Case 2. The father was shiftless, dishonest, lazy, extremely dirty, and of a very selfish and self-centered disposition. The mother was physically undersized, but of an intelligence and character somewhat superior to the father's. The children,—Mary, aged 10, Henry, aged 7, and Lucille, aged 5,—were committed by the juvenile court to the institution, the parents being nomad vagrants. The children were of good physical and mental endowment, except the youngest who was a cripple. The youngest child was given prolonged hospital treatment, and improved very considerably under it. The mother had to spend a good part of her time in a hospital. The father died shortly after the children were committed to the institution.

Contact was made with relatives residing outside of the city. One of these relatives, the brother of the mother, offered to rent an apartment for the mother and the three children and to look after the family. Through correspondence with a social agency in the city where the brother lived, it was found that he was a very substantial and worthy man, with a splendid reputation in his neighborhood. On presenting the data to the court, permission was granted the family to remove to the brother's city. Through follow-up correspondence with a social agency in this city, it was found that the family were very happy in their new surroundings, that the children had entered the parish school, and that the brother was living up fully to the responsibility he had assumed for his sister and her family.

In all cases of discharge of children to their own parents or relatives, it is imperative to make reasonably sure of two things: that the child is fit and ready to go home, and that the home is fit and ready for the child.

Some parents appear at first sight to be hopelessly unfit, as in the first case just given. Often a long-time program of upbuilding is needed for the child, for the home, or for both. In some cases such upbuilding can sometimes be done very rapidly; but in others skilful, resourceful, and sympathetic treatment must continue for months or even years. Appeal to delinquent parents must differ from case to case. Parental probation is often a necessity.

The policy of discharging children whenever the parents so request is not the best one. The parents may have the noblest intentions and may mean well, but may be incapable of looking properly after the child. If a child is discharged under such conditions, the institution's labor for the child is largely lost, and often the child has to be returned after a short time to the institution. If either the child or the home is not yet ready and fit, and if the children have been placed in the institution by voluntary agreement with the parents, every means needs to be taken to persuade parents to permit the child's remaining in the institution. If the parents cannot be so persuaded, and if the home or the child be obviously and seriously unfit, recourse may have to be had to the court to secure judicial commitment. Such appeal to court action should be a matter only

of last resort; but it may become necessary in the interest of the child, of the parents, or of both.

In all cases the institution needs to keep an intimate touch through its own social worker and staff or through an outside agency with developments in the home, and to investigate thoroughly before discharge.

(2) *To Foster Homes.* By "placing out" is meant the placing of a child in a family, other than that of a relative within the second degree. Such foster homes are of four kinds: the boarding home, in which board is paid for the child; the free home, in which the child is cared for without board being paid; the adoption home, in which the child is legally adopted by foster parents; the working home, in which the child receives a definite wage over and above his board.

In early Christian days it was the prevalent custom to place children in foster homes. Not until later did the orphanage arise to share the field with the foster home. One section of the Apostolic Constitutions, an important semi-official document of the early centuries, reads as follows: "If any Christian, whether boy or girl, be left an orphan, it is well if one of the brethren who has no child, receives and keeps him in a child's place." Throughout Christian history, placing in foster homes has thrived side by side with placing of orphaned, destitute or neglected children in institutions.

Most of our institutions, to judge from the present study, arrange to place in foster homes some of their children. The tendency at present is seemingly toward a greater degree of such foster-home placement than was customary a generation ago. Probably this tendency would be still more marked were it not for the difficulty of finding suitable foster homes and for the unfortunate outcome of a great deal of indiscriminate placing out that has occurred during the last century.

Owing to these and other conditions we find a certain lack of agreement on fundamental policies. This disagreement, however, is seemingly less radical than appears on the surface.

We find general agreement on the principle that the child's place is in its own home, and on the corollary that if a child has to be removed from his own home the substitute home should be as much like a good normal home as possible.

From the ideal standpoint, a good foster home certainly is more like a good family home than is a good institution. But when we descend from the level of the ideal to the level of the real, the problem is not so simple. On the latter level, and it is on this level that life has to be lived, we have to reckon not with ideals alone but with cold realities.

The first of these realities is the very real problem of *finding suitable foster homes* in any given community.

“By reason of the difficulty of securing a sufficient number of free homes, child-caring agencies have been compelled, to an increasing degree, to make use of boarding homes. Except in the case of those placed for adoption, it is not easy to find homes that are able and willing to take care of children free of charge. Even with the payment of board, it is exceedingly difficult to find good homes for children. In the boarding home, as in the free home, we must expect a spirit of sacrifice on the part of the parents. The amount of the board is, of course, never sufficient to compensate for the services rendered. We must expect a real love for and interest in the welfare of the children. We must look to the foster-parents to give to the children what was missing in their own homes. We must expect them to be able to reckon with and to correct the faults of the children” (O’Grady, *An Introduction to Social Work*, 129).

The second reality which we have to face is that of *actual* conditions both in institutions and in foster homes. It is not fair to compare the best institutions with the worst foster homes, or the worst institutions with the best foster homes. Average actual institutions must be compared with average actual foster homes, best with best, or worst with worst. But to do this, we should need an exact objective scale of rating, and no such exact scale at least for the institution, is at hand.

We have a certain amount of information on the actual after-lives of children reared in foster homes and in institutions. But this information is meager. Even if it were much more abundant, it would not in itself enable us to determine with scientific precision the part that institutional or foster-home care has played in the gross results. For many other factors contribute to these results, and canceling out these variables is an enormously difficult task.

In two highly interesting recent attempts to measure objectively the relative value of foster-home and institutional care, the investigators reach the conclusion that a certain balance appears in favor of the institution, so far at least as some phases of the problem are concerned (Leonard-Wallace, in *Proc. 14th Nat. Conf. Cath. Char.*, 1928, 261-85; Trotzkey, *Institutional Care and Placing Out*, 1930). These studies cover only a limited field. Moreover, while they represent the beginnings of a scientific, objective approach to the problem, they lead to probable inferences only, not to established certainties. But they do suggest strongly that extreme partisan views in this moot question are, in the present state of our knowledge or lack of knowledge, premature.

It is not the purpose of the present manual to take part in the controversy that has prevailed between advocates of institutions and advocates of foster homes. We seem, moreover, to have passed the peak of the controversy, and agreement appears fairly general that both systems of child care have their legitimate place. Both have thrived for a millennium and a half. Both will no doubt continue to thrive for many a day to come, until or unless much more definite and objective evidence than we possess today proves scientifically that the one or the other is the universally superior method.

Meanwhile, there appears fair unanimity of view among our institutions that a great many children who would formerly have been kept indefinitely in the institution can and should be placed out in foster homes, where suitable homes can be found.

Foster-home placement constitutes a division of social work closely related to institutional care, yet rather sharply differentiated therefrom in technique and procedure. It seems wiser, therefore, in the present manual, not to enter into a detailed treatment of the technique and procedure of placing out, as this would carry us very far afield and would involve at least a whole chapter to itself. In the bibliography at the end of the present chapter is given a selected list of standard sources on placing-out policies and methods.

We may merely call attention in passing to some of the more outstanding accepted principles and policies in foster-home placement.

- a. Before a child is placed out in a foster home, the investiga-

tion of the home and the neighborhood by a trained worker is imperative. Placing out children without such investigation is a crime against childhood. The evils of the older system of placing out without investigation are too well known to demand listing.

- b. After the child has been placed, frequent visits must be made to the foster home, at least quarterly, and preferably monthly, "until such time as the child no longer needs supervision. Ordinarily, supervision should not cease until the boy or girl has reached the age of twenty or is adopted" (Program for Catholic Childcaring Homes, 21).
- c. If it be found that the home in which the child has been placed is not entirely satisfactory in itself, or that the child is not reasonably well adjusted therein, then a change of foster home becomes necessary.
- d. "Except for special reasons, consent to legal adoption should not be given until the child has been in the foster home not less than a year, and longer if it is the practice in your community or under the direction of the State Law, and only after careful supervision has shown that the placement is satisfactory" (ibid., 21).
- e. "An institution should not undertake to place a child in a home unless definitely authorized to do so through voluntary surrender of the child by the parents or under the existing laws of the State or judicial procedure" (ibid., 20).
- f. For children for whom permanent or long-time foster-home placement may not be feasible or advisable, temporary or short-time placement is very often possible and eminently desirable.

There is a marked tendency in our institutions today to rest the responsibility for foster-home placement of their children in the hands of the diocesan Bureau of Catholic Charities. Most of our institutions have not their own social workers attached to the staff, and consequently are not equipped for the delicate and difficult task of home-finding, of investigation, and of supervision. Further-

more, where there is more than one institution in a given diocese, placing-out work is done much more economically and systematically by a well-established diocesan bureau. This calls, of course, for cordial teamwork between the institutions and the agency. A few of our institutions do their own placing out, particularly in cases where the superintendent of the institution and the diocesan director of charities are one and the same person. The following excerpts illustrate some of the essentials in method and in personnel.

The general policy of the institution is to place as many as possible of the children in free homes. Families who desire to accept a child must fill out a very detailed application form. After the application is made, the home is carefully investigated in person by the superintendent or by the sister superior. A detailed blank is filled out after each such visitation. The foster-parents must agree to look after the child's religious care, to send him to school, and to give him work that is not too heavy. For placed-out children who have finished school and are under eighteen years of age, the foster-parents are obligated to put in bank to his account \$300 a year. The yearly amount put aside, if the child is over eighteen years of age, is \$450. An itemized account is sent to the superintendent. He visits the home in person at least once a year. Other follow-up work is done by the sisters and by the county social worker. As the section in which the institution is situated is a rural one, most of the children are placed out in farm homes. In nearly all cases the placement has worked out very satisfactorily. (# 71)

The Catholic Charities, located in the institution, does all placement work. No child is placed until it is determined on the basis of thorough case-work study that no parent or near relative is available, or that such as are available are utterly unsuitable, or that all possibility of family rehabilitation has been exhausted. Due consideration is also given to the physical, mental, moral, and religious condition of the child himself. On each individual case the director and the social worker confer. The same worker carries a case through from pre-admission investigation to placement.

A second social worker from Catholic Charities devotes most of her time to home-finding and to supervising children after

they have been placed out. Careful investigation is made of foster homes before a decision is made as to acceptance. Foster-parents, both husband and wife, are required to sign the filled-out written application. The written reference blanks are sent to pastor, physician, employer, banker, and three others named by the applicants. If the answers to these are satisfactory, an investigation visit to the home is then made. A running record is kept of the supervision of the child placed in the foster home, and follow-up visits are conducted until adjustment is definitely determined as satisfactory.

The Catholic Charities uses various methods for finding homes but feels the most satisfactory to be that of individual selection and search. Many applications come through present foster-parents who have a child in their home already satisfactorily placed. Sometimes pastors are asked to suggest suitable homes in their parishes. The Catholic Charities does not advertise in papers for foster homes, does not ask pastors to make announcements from the pulpit, and does not play up children at Christmas time on a sentimental basis. (# 88)

(3) *To Other Institutions.* Sometimes children need to be transferred to other institutions giving more specialized care,—to institutions for the feeble-minded, for the deaf and dumb, for crippled children, for cardiacs, for the tuberculous and so forth. Not much need be said on this score, except perhaps to call attention again to our great dearth of Catholic institutions for the mentally defective and to the importance of further consideration being given to the provision of such institutions, and, we may add, of *institutions for other types of specialized care.*

(4) *To Self-support.* A great many children remain in our institutions until they are prepared to assume economic independence in the outside world. It is a generally recognized principle that children should not be discharged from an institution on the basis of age alone. The institution takes the place of the parent. One fundamental parental office is that of preparing and training offspring for self-support. Some children are capable of such self-support at a fairly early age; others, not until they have arrived at a more mature age. Much depends on the character and mental ability of the individual child as well as upon the preparation he has received and upon local opportunities.

Most or probably all of our institutions who keep children up to their middle teens arrange to find positions for them. This subject has been dealt with a little more in detail in the section on Vocational Education in the chapter on Education.

Some of our institutions (e.g., # 14, # 67) have well-developed plans for seeing that older children, on leaving the institution to take up work, have a modest reserve fund to help in tiding them over the early stages of economic independence. One institution (# 67) provides all children leaving the institution with a very generous outfit of new clothing. Such clothing is, and should be, suitable to season and in conformity with current styles.

b. *Predischarge Investigations.* In all cases where children are discharged either to parents, to relatives, or to foster homes, it goes without saying that very careful previous investigation is imperative. This subject has been dealt with either implicitly or explicitly throughout the whole of the present section and needs not to be labored.

2. AFTERCARE

a. *The Problem.* As a general principle, it is agreed that *the institution's responsibility for the child does not end with the discharge of the child from the institution.* What particular types of aftercare should be given, and by whom responsibility should be assumed, depend upon individual cases and upon the conditions obtaining and the resources available in the given locality.

"Every conscientious superintendent should see to it that supervision and visitation of discharged children, even when discharged to their parents, is kept up for a period of from two to three years, or until the child is well established in its new home. Only too often have boys and girls been released to uncles and aunts who tired of them within a few months and then sent them adrift to fall into the dangers which beset the way of the unguarded. The lack of proper after-care in years gone by was responsible for most of the sad occurrences which have helped to give a false impression of the value of institutional care" (Program for Catholic Childcaring Homes, 22).

That the majority of children who are discharged from insti-

tutions have need of a greater or less amount of care and supervision is generally recognized. Unless these children are turned over to some other agency or institution, there is no one else to give such aftercare but the institution from which the child is discharged. After all, should a child of immature age go out from its own home into economic independence, the parents and other kin do not suddenly sever connection with him and absolve themselves from any further interest in his well-being. They stand by him in his struggles to make good. They give encouragement and, if necessary, financial support, where such encouragement and financial support are called for. They keep strong the bonds of affection and loyalty. They stay in intimate touch with the child. They serve as an anchorage and a refuge. They counsel, advise, warn. They serve, not only as parent, or kin, but as counsellor, philosopher, and friend. The institution stands to the child in the place of his parents. The same responsibility for aftercare falls upon the institution as falls upon parents, though of course this responsibility differs with each case.

Before entering into the subject in detail it may be worth while giving brief illustrations of some ways in which aftercare is carried on by three institutions, the first being a very large institution, the other two being smaller ones in which less formal methods are in use.

"When boys and girls reach the age of sixteen years and no relative can provide for them, they are sent to the Catholic Guardian Society which has charge of the 'After Care' of the children. The Society procures through its agents suitable employment, and in case of the boys a boarding house. . . . [In the city is provided a large club home for the girls].

"A history of the educational, social, physical, and general deportment of each child is sent to the Catholic Guardian Society some time before he or she is placed out, and this gives them an idea of the capabilities of the child.

"The agents of the Society keep in touch with the children for several years and are very much interested in their welfare. Our relations with the Society are and always have been most cordial. We appreciate very much the interest they take in our boys and girls, and we feel we can always call upon them to help the children when in need.

"A number of the older graduates who have entered the matrimonial state come to visit—bringing their little ones along to show them where they were brought up, and the Sisters who cared for them. . . .

"Every holiday on an average of from thirty to forty boys return to spend the day, to see the Sisters and their boy friends, to have a game of ball, and in the summer season a swim in the pool. When here for Mass or Benediction of the Most Blessed Sacrament, the boys join in the singing of the hymns with the other children just as when they were in the Home. Quite a few of the boys receive Holy Communion in the Chapel when visiting. . . . This is a source of great example for good among the younger children, who of course look up to them" (Golden Jubilee, St. Joseph's Home, Peekskill, N. Y., 1929, 16-20).

The children are supervised as much as possible after they leave the institution. It is made very clear that, if at any time they are not getting along well, they must always let the superintendent know and give him a chance to help them. He keeps in touch with most of the children, either through correspondence or through their return visits to the institution. Many of them come back regularly. Last year the services of a social worker were secured for a few months to look up all the children who had left. There are eight beds in the farm house that are available for boys who come back out of work. These boys know they are always welcome. Every effort is made to have the children feel that the institution is always their home and that they are always free to come back at any time. (# 27)

Graduates, including older married ones, are always welcome back for visits, and are allowed and encouraged to come to the institution for an hour or two of evenings. The sisters stay and chat with them, watch them play, serve some light refreshments, and so forth. (# 131)

There are many different types of aftercare service. For the sake of convenience we may deal with these under two headings: case work, and group work. It is not always possible to draw a sharp line between the two types of work, nor is the following classification rigidly logical. The classification is used merely to differ-

entiate two broad types of work and to center attention on the importance of using both.

b. *Case Work*. Social work in the way of aftercare differs in accordance with the manner and the circumstances of discharge.

(1) *To Parents and Relatives*. It is imperative in the interests both of the child and of the home to maintain a greater or lesser amount of contact with the home over a period that may run into months or even years. The one aim that needs constantly to be held in mind is to see that after discharge, even to parents and relatives, the child's welfare is reasonably safeguarded. If follow-up is done tactfully and sympathetically, it will not be interpreted as an intrusion. If it is not done at all, in a vast number of cases the welfare both of the child and of the home will suffer grievously.

(2) *To Foster Homes*. That aftercare is rigorously demanded where the child has been discharged to a foster home is a universally recognized principle that has been dealt with in a previous section of the present chapter. The more common custom among our institutions is to turn over the responsibility for aftercare in foster homes to the diocesan Catholic Charities or to some other outside agency particularly equipped for this task. The following excerpts need no comment.

When a child is placed in a foster home, the foster parents are coached specifically in the training of the child, and as full information regarding the child and its history is given to the foster parents as in each case seems desirable and feasible. (# 68)

More commonly, foster homes are discovered, and later investigated, upon reference from the pastor who knows and recommends the home. After the child is placed therein the parish priest in whose parish the child has been placed takes a good deal of the responsibility for aftercare. He keeps in close contact with the child and works in intimate cooperation with the family. (# 85)

Pastors assist the institution gladly and take particular interest in the boys placed in their parishes. A great deal is done too in the way of aftercare through the local parish St. Vincent de Paul societies. (# 72)

(3) *To Other Agencies or Institutions.* Where a child has been admitted to the institution on court commitment and where the court assumes full responsibility for the child after his discharge from the institution, the institution does not usually consider itself under responsibility for him. Ordinarily, the same is true where he is under the supervision of a social agency or is discharged to another institution. However, even in these types of discharge, there are cases where the institution may be expected to keep at least some touch with the discharged child. In particular, aftercare by courts may leave much to be desired. In all cases, it is very desirable in the interests of the child that a definite report be made to the court, agency or other institution upon his progress, possibilities, and limitations, as revealed by his residence in the institution.

(4) *To Self-support.* The transition from economic dependence to economic independence is for children in general one fraught with many hazards. It is apt to be even more dangerous a transition for the child who comes out of the institution. Notwithstanding the remarkable progress that institutions have made in accustoming the child during residence to self-dependence, through freer discipline and through frequent contact with the outside world, the break on departure into self-support is ordinarily a sharp one. The child is suddenly thrust into new situations, temptations and associations that necessarily involve no little strain and stress. Our institutions are keenly conscious of the gravity of the problem, and make use of many methods and devices for tiding the child over these first dangerous months and years.

Six main problems arise: religion, companionship, shelter, work, education, and recreation. A number of our institutions find it well worth while to introduce the child, at the time of discharge, to the pastor of the parish in which he or she is going to live. This introduction may be given by letter, but is preferably made in person. It is well also to arrange for the child to enter actively into parish activities, devotional and recreational, for the young, as such associations are very valuable in keeping him faithful to religious practices and in helping him to form wholesome and safe new friendships. Neglect of religious duties and misuse of leisure time are perhaps the chief immediate factors that lead to moral breakdown among institutional graduates. Whatever is done to help the

discharged child either to pray well or to play well goes very far to prevent disaster.

A child leaving an institution without friends who can speak and work in his behalf is very apt to find himself reduced to accepting a blind-alley job or one that brings wages grossly insufficient for decent living. While most of our institutions discharge their children before the age of self-support, most of them keep at least a few of the children until this age. They consequently face the task of finding suitable positions or of helping the children to find them at the time of discharge. Frequently, too, our institutions, by encouragement, by material aid, and by other means, arrange to have the children continue their high school or vocational education after discharge from the institution.

A final major responsibility is that of finding suitable lodging and boarding places for children discharged to economic independence. Many of the children during the period immediately following discharge have to live on pitifully small wages. This means that unless assistance of one kind or another is given, these young people will often be obliged to choose lodging and boarding places that are safe from neither a moral nor a physical standpoint.

Some of our institutions permit the children either to lodge and board at the institution for a while after technical discharge, or else leave them free to return temporarily to the institution when they are out of work or in financial or other difficulty. This plan gives opportunity for excellent informal aftercare.

After the girls have graduated from commercial or classical high school and have secured employment, they are permitted to remain at or return to the institution for one year. Through this plan they get an opportunity to accumulate some savings and to secure a sufficient supply of clothing and other belongings. The girls do their own shopping and selecting of wearing apparel and are allowed to have the bills charged to the institution. The sister superior accepts a small amount from their salary until the bills are entirely paid. Under this arrangement, she keeps in close communication with the girls for the period of a year at least. She is interested to know the friends whom the girls meet and the acquaintanceships they form through their business contact. She is in a position to observe whether or not the girls are living up to their

religious duties. Meanwhile, she keeps on the watch for a good home in a Catholic family where the girl may later board. It has been the experience of the institution that this plan has done much toward helping the girl to learn discretion in matters of living expenses and to find her way in the world over this twelve-month transition period. After the girl has begun living entirely away from the institution, the social worker attached to the staff keeps in touch with her for a good while until adjustment is complete. (# 39)

The institution has a working boy's department. For the first year after discharge, the employed boy is permitted to live at the institution. After that time he is expected ordinarily to take up his abode elsewhere. This period serves practically the same purposes as in the immediately preceding illustration. (# 45)

The problem of providing for the older boys is one of the most difficult that the institution has to face. For boys who cannot be returned to their own homes or placed in foster homes, the institution has to find some gainful employment. The positions in which such boys are placed usually pay small wages. Thus the boys often do not have sufficient income to live at good boarding houses. Nor have they a sufficient margin for savings, and consequently even a short period of unemployment is apt to leave them penniless. The institution feels very keenly the need of a working boys' home, in the downtown section of the city, in which the boys discharged could board until such time as they would be able to adjust themselves on the outside, and to which they might return if they should be out of work. Actually, if a boy leaves the institution and gets out of work or goes on the rocks financially, it is quite common for him to come back to the institution and stay there for a week or so until he gets back on his feet. While the field study of the institution was being made, there were a half-dozen or more boys staying there temporarily. This return gives rise to some problems in institutional discipline, but these are never very serious. (# 68)

It is a recognized policy, made clear to all girls who are discharged to self-support, that should they be unemployed or in financial or other straits, they must not hesitate to return to the institution as this is their home. (# 81, # 112)

When girls reach the working-age limit and have no parents or relatives to whom they can go, a boarding place is secured for them by the institution. Until, however, a suitable home is found for them, they may live at the institution and at the same time work on the outside. (# 83)

Lodging and boarding accommodations for young graduates are often found in the homes of older married graduates. (# 11)

In many cities the problem of aftercare for institutional children graduating into self-support is partially solved through club homes for working boys and girls. The following may serve as brief illustrations.

Girls who graduate into self-support and who have no home or relatives of their own, board at the girls' club. Positions are secured for them and they pay a nominal sum for board and lodging. (# 75)

When the boy is ready for employment, on discharge he is referred to one of the two local Catholic boys' club homes, where board, lodging and employment are arranged for. In each of these clubs live thirty boys. Each club is presided over by a responsible and capable matron. There are no signs over the club doors to label them in any way that would make the boys feel as if they belonged to a segregated group. The boys come and go as they will, with special permission to remain out until 11:00 p.m. if occasion arises to do so. Incidentally these boys are urged to join the Young Men's Institute, in which they are thrown into contact with a fine group of Catholic boys and girls. Well-conducted dances are given under its auspices and social events are carried out in the right atmosphere. The boys also have ample opportunities in the Institute for athletic sports. (# 80)

By Whom. Aftercare such as we have been speaking of is carried on in a few institutions by social workers attached to the institutional staff; in most institutions, by social workers attached to the diocesan Catholic charities. In the Archdiocese of New York, very successful and systematic aftercare is given by the Catholic Guardian Society, an independent agency working in close cooperation with the various institutions of the diocese and taking over re-

sponsibility for the children after their discharge from the institutions. The following statement by the Society outlines the plans and policies pursued:

There are twelve Child-Caring Homes in the New York Archdiocese for which the Catholic Guardian Society does After Care. These homes shelter nearly nine thousand children. Every year between fifteen and sixteen hundred children leave these homes.

This Society functions for two distinct groups of children. First, it assists in safeguarding the interests of the children who return to the homes of parents or relatives. Secondly, it assumes the responsibility of providing for the needs of those boys and girls without kinship ties, who leave the child-caring homes at the age of sixteen. The Society, with a staff of thirty-four, accomplishes its work through the following divisions: Home Care, Girls, Boys, and Employment.

The Home-Care Division. The Home-Care Division supervises those children who are returned to their own relatives from the child-caring homes of the Archdiocese. This Division cooperates with the Bureau of Investigations of the Department of Public Welfare and the Children's Society, to determine the fitness, spiritually, physically and economically, of the home to which the child is to return.

There is a tremendous difference between the proper supervision of children and perfunctory calling. The Visitors interest themselves in the spiritual welfare of the children; in their health, which may include the provision of clinic, hospital and convalescent care. Particular attention is given to their educational development, and when employment is the solution for the older children of this group, the services of our Employment Bureau are at their disposal. Ofttimes the Visitors exert the only conserving influence for the preservation of the home, and frequently solve trials and difficulties threatening the security of the children.

Each case is cleared through the Social Service Exchange. When a problem arises in a family that entails the giving of relief, the family is referred to an agency equipped to handle the situation. Even after the case has been referred, the Division continues its interest in the children and cooperates

with the other agencies interested. The length of supervision and the intensity vary according to difficulties presented. The City requires that two visits a year be made to each child. However, the Division does not confine itself to two visits, and supervision is given as frequently as is needed. The work of this Division is divided into districts, each Visitor being responsible for a certain number of cases in a particular district.

From dependent child to a wage earner is, in most cases, a very swift transition for those boys and girls who are without parents or relatives, and who must become self-supporting at the age of sixteen. At this critical period of their lives, guidance and friendship, capable, kind and understanding, is most essential. Employment must be provided, health must be preserved, wholesome recreation arranged, thrift encouraged, and the boy or girl must be placed in that environment most conducive to the best moral and spiritual development. The plan of work in the Boys and Girls Divisions is especially designed to accomplish this purpose.

Girls Division. During the past year the Society has been particularly interested in the development of this Division. A complete re-organization has been made on a district basis. A Supervisor and six Visitors are now interested in this group of girls, each Visitor covering a specified district and supervising sixty girls therein. Their friendly visitation includes follow-up on health, employment, recreation, savings, further education, and attention to their religious duties. In many instances, the Visitor stands in the place of parent, friend and counselor to those girls who find themselves without relatives. The relationship is of necessity one of friendly, sympathetic understanding. The Visitor strives to make the proper adjustment for each girl, weighing well her limitations and her capabilities. This supervision continues until the girl reaches her twenty-first birthday.

Boys Division. Initiating the sixteen-year-old boy to the community and surrounding him with the proper environment is the work of this Division. This means the finding of numerous and fitting boarding homes in neighborhoods offering proper facilities for religious life, educational courses, and

wholesome recreation. Seventy-four boarding homes now in use measure up to this test.

The boys are encouraged to join neighborhood clubs and to take an active part in parish activities. In this way the Society fosters his social development and teaches him to understand that he "really belongs".

Employment Division. The Employment Division cooperates for the placement of the boys and girls under the Society's direct care, and also assists in securing commercial positions for the boys and girls of working age who are with relatives. Emphasis is placed upon their vocational aptitudes rather than upon jobs available.

Both Placement Counselors visit the various child-caring homes, and interview and plan for the boy and girl prior to their discharge. Girls are placed either in wage homes or in commercial training. Many are given the opportunity for higher education through scholarships and as cooperative students in the Textile High Schools; others are assisted in securing the specialized training best accommodated to their abilities.

Boys are placed in mercantile, manufacturing, and industrial positions, and it was possible during 1929 to secure positions affording quite a few boys opportunity to learn trades.

c. *Group Work.* The three chief ways in which aftercare is carried on by what we are loosely calling group work are the following: alumni and alumnae associations; return visiting, by graduates, either on homecoming or similar days, or else currently during the year; letters, cards and so forth.

(1) *Alumni and Alumnae Associations.* The institutions that have alumni or alumnae associations feel strongly that these are distinctly worth while. The following excerpts suggest some of the chief values and methods.

The Alumni Club was organized about five years ago. The superintendent feared at first that the children might object to such an association. But he found on the contrary that they gladly welcomed it. There are about 250 active members in the Alumni Club, membership being confined to boys and girls sixteen years and over who have left the institution. The

members are all young. Graduates who are older, married or settled do not belong. Only those who are young enough to need social direction are members. The object of the club is the mutual spiritual and material betterment of the members. The social worker on the institution's staff, who is the chief guide and counsellor to the group, finds it very valuable in helping her assimilate the members to life and society outside the institution.

The club has no club house at present but plans to rent one. It holds its social or other functions in the Knights of Columbus halls or other similar meeting-places in different parts of the city. It also meets once a month at the institution itself, such monthly meetings usually being held on Sunday morning, when the members attend Mass and receive Communion in a body and have breakfast together after Mass. When meetings are held in the evening an entertainment program is organized. The meetings are usually attended by from 150 to 200 boys and girls. Among the activities of the group are dances, card parties, game parties, lectures and musical programs, and the corporate annual Communion.

At a dance held just prior to the date when the study of the institution was made, four or five hundred people, a great number of them prominent in the community, took part in the affair. The dance itself was held in one of the Knights of Columbus halls. The Knights and their wives and grown children who are especially interested in the institution took full part in the dance and mingled and danced freely with the boys and girls of the group. In disposing of tickets for dances, careful selection is adhered to, guests being chiefly confined to the close personal friends of the club members and to the Knights and other friends of the institution.

During Lent particularly, the club gathers for occasional lectures with musical programs. For instance, at one gathering the head of the municipal recreational department gave a talk on wholesome recreation and where you can find it. At another, a local high-school man talked on evening-school opportunities for getting a fuller education free of charge. Informal game parties, without any regular dance, are often held on holidays. In addition, plays are given by the group. At the last annual corporate Communion, about a hundred

members went to the Cathedral and received Communion together. More or less in connection with the club activities, small groups of the members and of the graduates from the institution frequently come to the institution social worker's own home to visit or to have small parties, and she in turn frequently goes to their parties held in their own homes or elsewhere.

Through these measures she is enabled to keep in quite close contact with a large number of the graduates, and to see, so to speak, that all goes well. If any girl gets into trouble, one of her friends usually phones the social worker who then gets in touch with the girl. There is a very wholesome esprit de corps, so that if, for instance, one of the girls gets on the slippery edge the other girls will try to keep her from going wrong. This may be done too for the boys, as is illustrated in the following case.

One young man, a graduate of the institution, took to hard drinking and gradually gave up the practice of his religion. He was otherwise a good fellow. The group members, knowing the situation, arranged to give a play in which this particular boy would fit. By thus keeping in touch with him, they hoped to keep him straight. He agreed, was interested throughout the rehearsals, but slipped back into drinking just a few days previous to the evening on which the play was to be given. The social worker finally got him to master his problem, and the play went off satisfactorily. The night after the play, a party for the cast was given at the social worker's home. The boy was gotten to his Easter duty, the members of the cast all going to Easter Mass together, and the boy has been keeping sober ever since.

If any boy or girl is without employment, or if there is an actual or prospective marriage out of the Church, or if some other trouble arises with one of the graduates, the social worker usually hears of the situation through the other boys and girls, and thus has an opportunity to help straighten out the difficulty as it arises. In the same institution and independently of the Alumni Club, the lay prefect in charge of the boys goes down town nearly every Saturday night and meets some of the older boys who have graduated from the institution. There is no particular program of activities. They just meet and chat at some rendezvous, and usually all chip in and

go somewhere and have something to eat. The group usually comes out to the institution the following day. (# 68)

The Junior Auxiliary is composed of girls who have been discharged from the institution and are working. Officers are chosen from members. The group has the advantage of a very capable counsellor. Meetings are held once a month, followed by some specially planned activity,—theater, lecture, musicale, and so forth. The girls are always free to call upon the counsellor for advice in their personal affairs, and often do so. The plan has done much to strengthen the tie between the girls and the institution. (# 81)

All former boys are listed as members of the alumni association. The association has no dues, but the superintendent and staff endeavor to keep in as close touch as possible with the members through correspondence, cards, and visits. The alumni members act in a measure as big brothers to the boys who are still in the institution, and help towards finding free homes for the boys. (# 72)

Some institutions have the aftercare worker set up headquarters in an alumni house located in a central town or city. The house serves as an employment agency, residence club for children who have no homes, and recreational center for all alumni. The plan works very well. (# 316)

(2) *Visits.* All our institutions encourage return visiting on the part of their old children and welcome them back affectionately. Through this very informal but very effective means, opportunity is given for counsel, guidance, sympathy, and help, that can in a very true sense be considered aftercare. Some institutions find it well worth while to have annual home-coming days.

An annual event is the barbecue held May 13th. The affair is looked forward to with great anticipation and is always a distinct success. The boys and girls who have left the school for return to their own homes or for placement in families, make it a special point, wherever possible, to return for this date. (# 8, an Indian school)

A special day is set aside each year for a general reunion. The girls who have graduated make a special effort to attend on this day. It may be added that at this particular institu-

tion some of the girls usually return to spend Christmas at the home. (# 81)

Easter Sunday is "Homecoming Day" for all the former children of the "Home". All the children who come attend High Mass and receive Holy Communion in a body. After Mass, breakfast is served to all the visiting children in one of the dining rooms, which is decorated for the occasion. After this, a musical program is rendered by the children of the home. This is followed by a search for Easter baskets. This "Homecoming Day" has always been regarded as a day of great joy for those who have left the Home, as well as for those in charge of the home. It has been a means of keeping in touch with these children, and also a help to keep them on the right path of duty. The largest majority of children respond to the invitation. In fact, they look forward to this day. (# 103)

(3) *Correspondence, Cards.* All of our institutions carry out a considerable amount of informal follow-up through correspondence with boys and girls who have left. Cards, too, are received and sent by the institution or by individual members of the staff, particularly at such times as Christmas and Easter. During the present study we have not come across any instance of systematic sending of birthday cards to graduates. This suggestion is offered for what it may be worth,

E. SOCIAL RECORDS

1. *Value.* To give the best service to the child, we need not only knowledge of the facts regarding the child and his family, but orderly, full, and easily accessible written records of these facts. Record keeping unquestionably entails no little work, but the expenditure of energy and time is more than justified. Some of the chief values of good records are the following.

- a. Committing the facts to writing goes far to insure greater accuracy and thoroughness. Where record blanks are to be filled in, the headings serve as reminders of the more important information needed.
- b. Memory plays tricks on all of us. This is particularly apt to happen where there is question of large numbers in an in-

stitution or where the social worker has a heavy and constantly shifting case load.

- c. Changes in institutional personnel are common. Without full written records the new superintendent or the new staff member is seriously handicapped for want of definite information on the children.
- d. Children in an institution are frequently transferred to the custody of outside agencies, and these agencies need full information on the child from the institution.
- e. The written record gives a better bird's-eye view of the child, enables those responsible for him to judge better his progress or failure, and gives them an orderly summary of the facts upon which to plan more intelligently for his welfare.
- f. Written records are required for institutional reports, and often for information that must be reported to civil authorities.
- g. Written records, when analysed and tabulated, are of very practical importance for gauging the results of general institutional policies and programs as well as of child welfare programs and policies in the wider community.
- h. Institutional records are very often the most important or the sole source of information desired or needed by adults who have been resident in the institution in early life.

2. *Types.* The social records consist primarily of the following: a face sheet summarizing the child's family background, the family history record, the child's history and other admission data, the running record of family and of child during the child's residence in the institution, record of discharge and aftercare.

The blanks used for these data vary considerably. A great many of our institutions have their own blanks. Others use blanks furnished by state welfare boards or by local social agencies. Still others use the blanks put out in card form by the National Conference of Catholic Charities or those issued in sheet form by the Child Welfare League of America. It does not appear advisable to work out a new set of case-record blanks in connection with the present

study, as we already have available forms which incorporate the best results of practical experience, Catholic and other. Moreover, conditions and legal requirements differ somewhat from state to state. Institutions that desire to inaugurate a new record system are advised to write to the above sources for sample sets of forms. They are also advised to consult the excellent detailed treatment of this subject in: *Handbook for Institutions*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, ch. xiv; Ralph, *Elements of Record Keeping*.

Other papers and data that should be filed with the above-mentioned basic social records are: court orders in cases of court commitment; filled-out applications for admission; parental agreements, including medical permit; and such medical, psychological, scholastic, and personality records as may have been gathered in the course of the preadmission investigation.

Ordinarily, infirmary records and bedside charts are kept in the infirmary during the child's stay there and are transferred to his general medical record at the time of his discharge from the infirmary. General medical, dental and school records of the children are more commonly kept in the respective departments during residence, and are transferred to the child's folder in the administration office at the time of his discharge from the institution.

The following types of records and blanks are in use here and there among our institutions and have been found of practical service. They are given here as possible suggestions to other institutions.

In addition to the case and other records filed numerically in folders, the institution uses a register, hung in the office, which shows at a glance the population for the current month, including admissions and discharges for the month. Alongside this register hangs another one listing the children who have received medical treatment for the month, the days they have attended the clinic, and the days they are due to attend the clinic. (# 7)

Special small cards are used to record visits made by parents, relatives, or others to the children. (# 11, # 67, # 68)

It is advisable that ample space be left on the case-record blanks for running records of significant events and changes that occur

either to the child or to the child's family from the period of admission, through residence, to discharge and completion of aftercare. Where space is not left on the blank for such running record, a separate form or ordinary blank sheets may be used.

Where the institution engages in foster-home placement, the child's social record should contain at least the following data: the filled-out application blank, reference blanks, preplacement investigation data, foster-parents' agreement, records of follow-up visits and of such replacements as may be demanded.

It is customary to file in the child's folder all correspondence bearing in any measure upon his admission, residence, or discharge.

Quotations from reports have been reduced to a minimum in the foregoing summary of types of records kept. The summary represents instead a composite picture of current practice in our institutions.

3. *How Kept.* Some institutions (e.g., # 11, # 14, # 16) prefer to keep the child's records in envelopes; other institutions (e.g., # 68, # 71, # 88) prefer the folder. *The folder is much more easily handled.* Folders or envelopes may be filed alphabetically or numerically. A file of index cards arranged alphabetically and, in some cases, summarizing the history of the child, is in common use. Such an index is of course essential where the records are filed numerically.

In addition to the index cards and folders, there is needed a register in bound book form. The following excerpts are given by way of illustration.

For the purpose of having readily at hand a record of all admissions and discharges, the institution maintains a loose-leaf ledger record. The record is bound and indexed at the end of each year, and is kept in a safe. (# 68)

For handy reference, there is a large loose-leaf record book which lists all applications for care in chronological order for each year. This record gives case number, date, name and address, a column for checking when registered at confidential exchange, source of information, names and ages of children, cause of dependency, disposition of case, and remarks,—all in parallel columns. This book also lists boarding homes and children boarding, children leaving institution, children dis-

charged from care, juvenile court commitments with dates of expiration, foster-home applications, wage homes, miscellaneous applications for service, children under supervision in their own or relatives' homes, and adoptions. The book is invaluable for statistical purposes. It also protects the essentials of the records both from error and from loss. (# 88)

Records need to be orderly, thorough and easily accessible. They must also be protected against disarrangement, prying, loss and fire. They should be under the charge of some one specified person through whom alone access to them is permitted. The file cases should be provided with locks, and should be kept locked except when in actual use. A great many institutions (e.g., # 14, # 68, # 71, # 72, # 88) keep their records in heavy fireproof files, safes, or combination file-safes. The built-in fireproof cupboard or vault provides a very high degree of safety and permits ample space, shelves, and files for valuable papers of all kinds. In any case, the bound register containing the essential information on children admitted should be kept in a safe. As an additional protection against loss by fire or other cause, it is well to keep a duplicate of the register in some safe place outside the institution.

REFERENCES

General. The institution for dependent children needs to be viewed, especially as regards social policies, against the whole background of social work for dependent children. An excellent bird's-eye-view of this background is given in: O'Grady, *An introduction to social work*, chs. v-vi, 86-135. For the history of child placing see Thurston, *The dependent child*. For summary of such history see: Slingerland, *Child-placing in families*, ch. i; articles, "Foundling asylums", by Ryan, and "Orphans and orphanages", by McKenna, in *Catholic encyclopedia*. On the relations of the institution to outside agencies, see McEntegart, *Institutions for children—their relation to other agencies*. On the partial disintegration of the modern family, see Schmiedeler, *Introductory study of the family*. Excellent summary treatments of the field of social policies may be found in: *Handbook for institutions*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, chs. i, v, xiii, xiv; *Child-caring institutions*, suggested minimum standards for children's homes in Ohio, Division of charities, Dept. of public welfare, Columbus, O., 1925, 13-26.

Admission. For concrete field data illustrating practical importance of pre-admission investigation and limitation of intake, see: "Institution intake," a symposium by Padgett, Blong, Muldoon, and Mason, in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1925, 178-91, with Discussion, 191-94; "Necessity of case work methods in child-caring homes," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Dec. 1926, x, 386-87. See also: McHugh, "Types of investigation necessary before breaking up the family," in *Proc. 13th*

Nat. conf. Cath. char., 1927, 73-83; cf. Montegriffo, *Follow up work in broken families*, *ibid.*, 83-87. An important general caution in evaluating the fitness of children's own homes and parents is dealt with in: Padgett, "Are theories practiced?," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Apr. 1929, xiii, 116-18.

On choice of institutional or foster home care in accordance with needs of individual child, see: Carstens, "What children should be received for care by an institution or agency and what is the responsibility for those not accepted?," in *Proc. 52nd Nat. conf. social work*, 1925, 83-88.

For important detailed discussions of the problem of personnel (institutional staff worker or outside agency), see: Labaree, *Case work process in children's institutions*; Doherty, *Agencies for determining whether care outside of own home is necessary, and if so, what kind of care*. The Cleveland plan is given in detail in Leete, *The Children's bureau of Cleveland*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 177, 1927. Plans in use among 10 other important agencies are presented in Hewins, Webster and Evans, *The work of child-placing agencies*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 171, 1927.

Discharge. The relative advantages of institutions and foster-homes are well discussed in: Trotzkey, *Institutional care and placing-out*, and Leonard (Wallace), *Home and institutional child life*,—two important comparisons based on detailed studies of typical institutions and foster homes; Thomas, *The place of the institution in a child welfare program*, and Ueland, *Given good foster homes and good institutions, which children should go to institutions?*,—both giving advantages and limitations of foster homes and institutions; Slingerland, *loc. cit.*, ch. xii, presenting the case for the foster home.

Foster Home Care. This subject is merely touched upon in the text of the present chapter. Principles, policies, and technique in foster home care are dealt with systematically but briefly in Butler, *Standards of child placing and supervision*, 1920, and *Essentials of placement in free family homes*, 1926, and are also treated thoroughly in the following chief sources: *Foster-home care for dependent children*, U. C. Children's bureau, publ. no. 136, rev. ed., 1926,—a symposium; Slingerland, *Child-placing in families*; Doran and Reynolds, *The selection of foster homes for children*, 1919,—on finding and investigating foster homes; Theis and Goodrich, *The child in the foster home*, pt. I, 1921,—on finding of free foster homes and on placement, supervision, and replacements of children therein.

A good illustration of how the agencies of one state have handled the foster-home problem may be found in: McClain, *Child placing in Ohio*, Div. of charities, Dept. of public welfare, Columbus, O., 1928. Reasonably successful experience in the placement of behavior problem children in foster homes is described in Healy and others, *Reconstructing behavior in youth*, a study of problem children in foster families, Judge Baker foundation publ. no. 5, 1929.

For the legal phases of placing out and adoption, see, in addition to local state codes, the following: Peck, *Adoption laws in the U. S.*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 148, 1925; *Laws relating to interstate placement of dependent children*, *ibid.*, publ. no. 139, 1924; Lyman, *Analysis and tabular summary of state laws relating to jurisdiction in children's cases*, *ibid.*, chart no. 17, 1930. Attention may also be called to Wendell Huston, *Social welfare laws of the forty-eight states*, loose leaf, 1930.

Aftercare. Some aspects of the problem are dealt with in: Duffy, "Aftercare of children discharged from the institution," in *Proc. 2nd ann. conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1921, 49-53; Sister Marie, "Planning for the child's future," in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1926, 421-26; Sister M. Ottilia, *After care and boy problems, ibid.*, 428-32

On alumni associations and work with alumni and alumnae, see: Sister Jane Frances, "Alumni societies in institutions," in *Proc. 2nd Conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1921, 10-13, with Discussion by Sister Stanislaus, *ibid.*, 13-15; discussion on alumni associations by Sisters Frances Jerome and Loretta, in *Proc. 9th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1923, 307-8; *Report of Board of directors*, 1928, Hebrew sheltering guardian society, 42-45.

Social Records. Write for: The simpler card blanks to the National conference of Catholic charities, 1103 Vermont ave., Wash., D. C.; more inclusive sheet blanks, to the Child welfare league of America, 130 E. 22nd St., New York City; and to your local state welfare board or to local social agencies.

Excellent summary treatments of the subject of records may be found in: *Handbook for institutions*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, ch. xiv; *The what, why, and how of children's records*, (6-page mimeo), Pennsylvania Dept. of welfare, Harrisburg, Pa. For detailed treatment, with numerous reproductions and illustrations of record forms, index systems, etc., see Ralph, *Elements of record keeping for child-helping organizations*, N. Y., 1915.

CHAPTER X

CONGREGATE, GROUP, AND COTTAGE SYSTEMS

A. DEFINITION OF TERMS

In a sense, the three basic plans of organization in vogue in child-caring homes represent broad tendencies rather than sharply defined systems. Many institutions cannot be classified as distinctly congregate, group, or cottage, because they are blends of two or of all three systems. Many institutions, too, that are dominantly congregate, group, or cottage, have features that are more characteristic of one or both of the other two systems. Definitions, therefore, of the three systems must take the form of descriptions, and even the descriptions must be a little arbitrary, and drawn from typical or more extreme examples of the respective systems.

In each of the three systems, there are two main elements: the size and type of the *groups*, which we shall call for convenience the element of *organization*; and the size and type of the units' *living and other quarters*, which we shall call the element of *equipment*.

In a typical congregate institution, both organization and equipment tend to be in large units. The children are divided into fairly large groups. The various groups share more or less in common, large dormitories, dining rooms, living rooms, and other quarters. The children are housed in one or more large buildings. The large unit, both in organization and in equipment, is the dominant note of the congregate home.

The typical group or cottage institution is characterized by small units both in organization and in equipment. The children are divided into small groups of about twenty children or less, each group being, throughout all or most of its daily activities, in permanent charge of one or two specified members of the staff. Under both the cottage and the group system, each group has its own living and sleeping quarters and lavatory facilities, and, commonly, its own dining room. The two plans differ in an important item of equip-

ment. Under the cottage system, each group has its own separate cottage or residence. Under the group system, each group has its own separate quarters, but two or more groups have their quarters under the same roof. In a general way, the cottage plan differs as regards equipment from the group plan somewhat as family life in a separate or detached residence differs from family life in an apartment house or apartment hotel.

B. PREVALENT CONDITIONS

Many of our smaller institutions, although nominally congregate, have in reality the small-unit feature of the cottage or group plan, so far as organization is concerned. Again, many larger institutions, though presenting in general the large-unit characteristics of congregate institutions, have certain features more typical of group and cottage homes. Still other institutions are blends of two or of all three plans.

The more prevalent type is the congregate or a modified form thereof. Four or five of the institutions studied have all or most of the features of the cottage system. Among the larger homes, from fifteen to twenty have all or most of the features of the group system. The general drift appears to be quite a decided one away from the congregate plan and in the direction of the cottage or group plans. Were it not for financial considerations,—a point to be discussed later,—the drift towards the group and cottage plans would be still more marked.

Turning attention from general conditions and tendencies to specific policies and methods, we may now present more detailed data on the large-unit and the small-unit plans in use in typical institutions. After this, we shall discuss the advantages and the drawbacks of the various plans as revealed by institutional experience.

I. CONGREGATE INSTITUTIONS

The following are illustrations of congregate systems that have some of the characteristics of the group system.

The total population is 447, all girls. The population is divided into three major units, namely, the preschool-age children, the juniors comprising the children from the first to the fourth grade inclusive, and the seniors comprising the children from

the fifth to the eighth grade and high school. A specified sister is accessible to each unit at all times in order to hear their troubles and to help them in any way. These same three sisters have charge of their respective groups during free time and at meals. Two sisters and sometimes three are assigned to each dormitory. The larger groups divide into smaller groups at recreation time, and are broken up into smaller units at each table in the dining room and in the respective classrooms. There are two dining rooms for the children, one large one accommodating the junior and senior groups, and a smaller one for the preschool children. Children sit six at a table. There are seven dormitories, accommodating about sixty-five children each, three of the dormitories for the children up to the fourth grade inclusive, three for those in the fifth to seventh grades, and one for the eight-grade children and those in high school. The preschool, junior, and senior units have each their own separate wash rooms; the preschool and junior units their own separate playrooms; and the junior units their own separate play yards and living rooms. The living quarters of the children are in one large building, consisting of two wings connected by a one-story enclosed corridor. (# 11)

The population of the institution is 325, all girls, from 5 to 16 years of age. They are divided into three groups: the first group, of 45 children from 5 to 8 years of age; the second, of 95 from 8 to 10, and of 97 from 10 to 12; the third group, of 42 from 12 to 14, and of 46 from 13 to 16. Each of these three groups is under the supervision of two sisters. The two sisters serve continuously with their respective groups. Each of the three groups has its own dining room, with individual small tables. The seniors, the 46 girls from 13 to 16 years old from the third group, have their own kitchen and prepare their own food. This group of seniors also has its own alcoved dormitories, each alcove with a bed, chair, stand, and mirror. The junior high section of the third group, consisting of the girls from 12 to 14 years of age, has its own dormitory, each girl having her own curtained compartment therein. The remaining children, those of the first group, and the two sections of the second group, have their separate dormitories. Each of the three groups has its own living room, and bathing and toilet facilities. (# 79)

The present population of the institution consists of 30 boys ranging in age from 2 to 6, and of 148 girls from 2 to 16. The children are divided into four groups or departments, each kept separate from the other, except for school, general assemblies, and parties. These four groups are: the baby department comprising the children from 2 to 3 years of age; the nursery department comprising the children from 3 to 7; the intermediates and juniors together; the seniors. The children are housed in one large three-story building. Each of the four groups has its own separate dining room, dormitory, and living room. (# 81)

The entire population of 140 girls is divided into three groups: division one, with 56 girls from 12 to 14 years of age; division two, with 44 from 9 to 12; division three, with 40 from 5 to 9. There are two sisters in charge of each of the three divisions. Each of the three divisions has its own separate dormitory. The three divisions use the same dining room and living room. (# 64)

2. GROUP INSTITUTIONS

In its main lines, the group plan implies the breaking up of the total population into smaller groups, each group with its own equipment and quarters in the building or buildings, and each group under the permanent supervision, throughout most or all of its activities, of one or two specified members of the staff.

The institution, the largest of the institutions studied, has a total population of 844 children,—470 boys and 374 girls. The boys are housed in one residence building, the girls in another. There are separate buildings for chapel, convent, administration, infirmary, school, and laundry and auditorium. The children are divided into groups of from forty to fifty each, the groups being made up according to grade. Each group is in permanent charge of two specified sisters, one of whom is teacher of her group. These two sisters relieve each other so that one or the other is always with the group. Each pair of sisters in charge of a group is relieved twice a week by a third sister, so that both can attend religious exercises with the other sisters of the community at least this often. Each group has its own wash room, as also its own school room. There are however some combinations of groups in

the dormitories and dining rooms. There are eight dormitories for the boys' groups and eight for the girl's groups. There are four separate dining rooms for the boys and three for the girls. (# 67)

The total population of the institution at the time of the study was 180 children,—96 boys and 84 girls. These are divided into six units as follows: senior girls, 26, from 12 to 18 years of age; senior boys, 29, from 11 to 12; junior girls, 34, from 7 to 11; junior boys, 39, from 7 to 10; preschool girls, 24, from 3 to 6; preschool boys, 28, from 3 to 6. The average size of the group is thirty. One sister has charge of each group throughout the whole day and night. Three of these sisters, those in charge of the two groups of preschool children and of the junior boys, have each a lay helper. The sisters in charge of the other three groups have each an older girl assigned to their department who relieves them for prayer, meals, and so forth. All groups are housed in the main building; but each group is a separate unit, with its own living room, dormitory, lavatories and toilets, locker rooms, and so forth, on the same floor. There are three dining rooms: one for the preschool boys and girls, one for the junior and senior boys, and one for the junior and senior girls. (# 88)

The total population of the institution is 681,—426 boys and 255 girls. The following grouping obtains at present. The boys are divided into three departments: the "kinders", 75, from 5 to 8 years old; the minims, 115, from 8 to 11; the seniors, 236, from 11 to 16. The senior boys are divided into six groups of forty each. The girls are divided into three departments: "kinders", 30 girls from 5 to 8 years old; the minims, 50, from 8 to 10; seniors, 175, from 10 to 17.

The present grouping represents a transitional stage. The institution is endeavoring to get away from mass treatment in dealing with the children under its care. Two years ago the Board of Directors decided to erect a new building instead of putting an addition to the old building as had been originally planned. This new building is a three-story structure, accommodating six groups of forty boys each, the senior boys mentioned above. Each of the three floors has two sections which provide apartment quarters for two groups of children. Each of the six sections or apartments of the building com-

prises a dormitory, recreation room, bath room, lavatory, and accommodations for members of the staff in charge of the respective groups. Between the two sections on each floor there are twelve showers which are used in turn by the boys of each section. Four of the six groups, the four comprising the boys between eleven and fourteen years old, are each in charge of one of four specified sisters. The two groups of older boys, from fourteen to sixteen, are each in charge of one of two laymen.

After the senior boys had been removed from the old building to this new one built on the apartment plan, the institution had the opportunity of making a beginning toward group organization for the smaller boys and for the girls. The seventy-five "kinder" boys between five and eight were cared for in a separate group, and the thirty "kinder" girls between five and eight in another. Each of these groups has its own dormitory, wash rooms and toilets, and each has its own sister in charge. Next, the fifty "minim" girls were placed in charge of a sister with their own dormitory, wash room, lavatory, and recreation room.

Plans are now under way for dividing the "minim" boys into at least two groups and the senior girls into two or more groups. A smaller dormitory has already been set aside for thirty-eight of the younger seniors in the senior girls' group, while a small dormitory provides for six of the older girls from this group. So far it has not been possible to provide more than one recreation room for the senior girls. Formerly all the children ate in one large dining room. This large room was divided into four sections separated by partitions reaching not quite to the ceiling. The dining room tables seat eight children each.

The experience of this particular institution well illustrates both the possibilities and the problems connected with the shift from congregate to group organization. All in the institution are enthusiastic over the changes that have come about under the new plan and look forward eagerly to the time when this large institution will be on a hundred per cent group basis. (# 68)

The institution's population is 400, about evenly divided between boys and girls. The building itself is congregate in

general type, but is divided up on the group or apartment plan. There are eight groups of children of about fifty each, four groups of boys and four of girls, the groups being divided according to age. There is one sister in charge of each group, and she has two assistants. She is responsible for her entire group, just as a mother would be. Each group has its own dormitory, recreation room, and dining room. (# 26)

The main building is a new brick fireproof edifice with all modern equipment. The boys are divided into three groups of from twenty to twenty-five each, arranged according to age. Each group has its own separate dormitory, lavatory, living room and dining room. (# 91)

The population of the institution is 703,—379 boys and 324 girls. The school-age children, from six to fourteen years old, are divided into eleven separate groups, six groups of boys and five of girls. Each group consists of forty-eight children of different ages, with a specified sister in charge of them. She lives with her group day and night. She leaves it only for her meals and religious devotions, at which times she is relieved by a sister of the teaching staff. Two of the groups are housed in a new two-story apartment-group building, each group occupying one of the two floors. The other groups of school-age children are housed in various sections of the other large buildings. Each of these groups has its own dormitory, living room, wash room, toilet room, dressing room, locker room, and study room and library. The preschool-age children live in a separate building, the girls having their dormitory, lavatories, toilets, dining room and play room on the first floor of the building, and the boys having similar quarters of their own on the second floor. These two younger groups are likewise in permanent charge of specified sisters. This institution represents a transition from the group plan to an apartment plan. The institution plans to erect seven two-story two-apartment residences, each containing separate quarters for two groups, one on the first floor and the other on the second. (# 14)

3. COTTAGE INSTITUTIONS

Whether an institution that houses two or three small groups in the same building should be called a cottage system is questionable. It would probably be more exact to call this an apartment

plan. The institution just described is already organized partly on such a plan. The first of the three institutions to be described is conducted wholly on this plan. The remaining two are on the straight cottage plan.

The population of this boys' institution is divided into nine groups of thirty boys each, on the basis of age. There is one sister in full and permanent charge of each group. The groups mingle freely, except while in school or in their own group living rooms or dormitories. The nine groups are housed in three separate residence buildings. Each building is a long two-story structure, divided *vertically* into three sections. Each section is as separate from the others as are non-detached residences in a city block. Each section contains on the first floor a large living room, 20 x 50 ft., with adjoining lavatory and toilets, the whole second floor being given over to a large 40 x 50 ft. dormitory room and to the house-mother's private quarters. This plan preserves many of the essentials of cottage construction, the three separate homes being erected under one roof from motives of economy. (# 80)

The population is 342, all boys, ranging in age from three to fourteen. The boys are divided into nine groups. One group is composed exclusively of the very small boys from three to five years of age. Each of the other eight groups is made up of boys of varying ages, from six to fourteen. Each group is in permanent charge of one sister who has full responsibility for her group. She is, however, assisted by one of the school teachers who rooms with her at the cottage and relieves her at breakfast time. In each cottage, too, there is a lay woman helper who does not live at the cottage but who comes daily and works there from eight in the morning until five in the afternoon. This lay helper does only domestic work and has no responsibility for discipline or for other management of the boys.

Each group is housed in its own separate cottage. In each cottage there is a half-basement, where there are toilets, washing facilities and forty lockers for the boys' playthings. On the first floor are a large living room with a small library adjoining, a study room, a reception room, a kitchenette, and a sewing room. On the second floor are two dormitories, a

wash room with basins and lockers, and, adjoining this, toilets and showers. Food is not cooked or served in the separate cottages. There is a large central dining building in which each cottage group has its own separate dining room, each dining room having five tables with eight boys to a table. Food is cooked in a common kitchen in the same building and wheeled in heated containers to the serving room off each separate dining room. (# 66)

The population of the institution is 114,—72 boys and 42 girls,—ranging in age from three to fourteen. The children are divided into six groups. One group, made up of infants, occupies a separate cottage. The other five groups are of twenty-four children at maximum capacity, each group being made up both of boys and of girls, ranging in age from three to fourteen years. The mixed group of boys and girls occupies the same cottage and eats in the same cottage dining room, the boys and girls at separate tables. The boys and girls, of course, have their own separate dormitories. Two sisters live in each cottage all the time, one of the two being in charge and the other acting as her assistant. They relieve each other for meals, prayers, and community exercises, at the convent. The cottage sisters are the only ones who live away from the convent.

Each of the six groups has its own separate cottage. The cottages are arranged around an inner court. While entirely separate one from the other, they are connected by a cloistered passageway. Each cottage has two stories, together with cellar and attic. On the first floor is a sewing room, a reception room for the children's visitors, a living room for the children, a dining room, a serving room, and a playroom. On the second floor are two large dormitories, each with its own dressing room, toilets, baths, and lavatories. The dormitories are over the living room and dining room. Off each dormitory is a screened sleeping porch big enough for a large bed. Each cottage sister has her room next to a dormitory, with a private bath between the two sisters' rooms. Food is prepared in the main kitchen and is brought thence to the cottage dining rooms in heated service carts. (# 71)

During the course of the present field study of Catholic insti-

tutions short visits were made by the field workers to seven of the non-Catholic cottage institutions. In most of them, cottage groups are of not more than twenty children, boys and girls live together in the same cottage, and the children are of mixed ages rather than of a uniform age level. The more common tendency, too, is to have a separate dining room in each cottage, as well as a separate kitchen. In the new St. Joseph's Villa now being erected at Richmond on the cottage plan, each cottage will have its own kitchen and dining-room and will in every other way be a complete and independent unit housing twenty-four children.

The foregoing excerpts describe typical congregate, group and cottage systems in use in our Catholic institutions. Having outlined some of the more salient facts, we may proceed to the discussion of the pros and cons, the advantages and disadvantages, of each of the three systems. We shall discuss, first, the small-unit (group and cottage) plans as compared with the large-unit (congregate) plan, and secondly, the group system as compared with the cottage system. In the discussion, we shall be guided, so far as available data permit, by the actual experience of our institutions and of their staffs.

C. SMALL-UNIT AND LARGE-UNIT PLANS

I. PRIMARY OBJECTIVE: INDIVIDUALIZED TRAINING

a. *The Family*. Traditional Catholic teaching and contemporary social teaching are at one in holding that the primary educative agency is the family. In the human family, success and the degree thereof in the training of the child are the resultant of three chief factors: the personal, the social, and the physical factors.

By the *personal* factor we mean all those qualities of mind and of heart which we speak of as personality. All who have anything to do with children are agreed that the personality of the parents is the primary influence in the training of the child.

By the *social* factor we mean the objective organization of the family. The family is a relatively *small group* in which the immature members are under an adult educative leadership that is *definite* in the sense of being pinned down specifically upon two people, that is *permanent* in the sense of lasting over a fairly long period of months and years, and that is *comprehensive* in the sense of embrac-

ing most or all of the activities of the child. The unit being small, *individualization* both in understanding the child and in training him is carried out under favorable conditions. Responsibility being definite, there is less room for shirking or for shifting parental duty, as parents know that they, and not others, are finally responsible for their children's training. Responsibility being permanent, parents have a long period in which to gain insight into their children's traits and tendencies and to train and educate their offspring. Responsibility being comprehensive, parents are in a position both to know and to train the whole child. A teacher may know and train the child at school; a play leader may know and train him at play; an employer may know and train him at work; but parents, under favorable social conditions, know and train the whole child.

By the *physical* factor we mean the family's separate and exclusive living quarters. Such separate quarters bring the members of the family into close and continuous contact, hold them more or less isolated from the rest of society, and ensure them a degree of privacy and freedom within the walls of the home that goes far to reinforce the loyalties, affections and confidence that must underlie any successful educative process.

Of these three educative factors in family life,—the personal, the social, the physical,—the personal ranks first in importance, the social second, and the physical third. This is not equivalent to saying that the physical is unimportant. All three elements are important, but they differ in degree of importance. It is recognized that congested and otherwise inadequate living quarters are a handicap upon wholesome family life and child training; but the vast number of splendid men and women who have been reared under congested living conditions is clear objective evidence that the obstacle of unfavorable social and personal elements are the deciding factors. Furthermore, it would appear to be a matter of common experience that, while the relative smallness of the family unit, as compared for instance with scholastic or political units, is a condition favorable to wholesome child training, nevertheless the major determinant in such training is the personality of the parents themselves. To sum up, we may say that all three factors,—the personal, the social and the physical,—are of importance, but not of equal importance. There are other factors in the training of the child

besides the foregoing three, but these three are probably most important ones. At any rate, they are central ones.

b. *The Institution.* It is a fundamental principle of Catholic teaching and of child welfare work, that the primary responsibility of caring for and of training the child rests upon the parents of the child; that no child should be removed from the family except as a last resort; but, that, if it be necessary so to remove him, then the substitute home should be as much like a good family home as it can be made. This is not an arbitrary principle. It is based upon the child's need of and right to the best training we can give him. The good family is best fitted personally, socially and physically for this, as can be seen from the reasons given in the preceding paragraphs.

In institutions is ordinarily found a relatively large group of children. It has been traditional in large institutions to break up the whole group into two or more subgroups divided according to sex and age. In bygone generations these subgroups themselves have tended to be quite large, each group comprising in the more populous institutions often seventy-five, a hundred, or even more children. Since over half a century ago, the conviction has gained ground that the whole population should be split up into much smaller groups, comprising at their maximum forty or fifty children, and preferably less than twenty. This was the first important shift in organization. The second shift, one closely related to the first and scarcely less important, has been to place each of these smaller groups under the definite care of a specified member of the staff who is permanently in charge of all the members of the group, and in charge of them throughout all or most of their activities. The major purpose of both these changes has been so to organize the institutional population as to approximate the type of organization that is such an important factor in child training within the circle of the normal family.

The cottage and the group systems have this small-unit and fixed-responsibility ideal in common. In this respect, typical cottage and group institutions contrast more or less sharply with typical institutions organized on the congregate plan. Both cottage and group systems are, as regards organization, much more like a family than is the typical congregate institution.

Of the two elements, organization which corresponds to what we have called the social factor in the family, and equipment which corresponds to what we have called the physical factor in the family, most would agree that the social factor, or organization, is the more important contributor to good child training. We may venture the view that a group-plan institution with groups of not more than *fifteen* children would, other things being equal, be distinctly preferable to a cottage-plan institution with *forty or fifty* in each cottage. More detailed discussion of the relative values of group and cottage systems will follow later. We are here merely emphasizing the fact that the basic ideal, *the training of the individual child*, is promoted by the *smallness* of the group with a *specified adult* in permanent and *full charge* of the whole group. Physical equipment and arrangements help or hinder very appreciably the attainment of this ideal, but they are not the *most* decisive factors.

Again, small-unit organization and separate living quarters and equipment for each unit do not in themselves ensure individual understanding and guidance of the children. Such organization and equipment are invaluable aids toward individualized training. But they do not work automatically or by magic. Ever and always the most important element in child training in families or in institutions is the personal one,—the personality of the parents or of the director and of the staff of the institution. The best organized and equipped cottage or group institution can fail of its purpose, if its staff be of the wrong timber. Conversely, much can be done towards individual training in a large-unit congregate institution, if the staff be of the right timber. But, given equal qualifications in staffs, the small-unit plan, be it cottage or group, offers very decided advantages for child training over the large-unit plan. Small-unit organization enormously strengthens the hands of the staff, for it provides the staff with more favorable conditions for training the child.

2. SECONDARY CONSIDERATIONS

The foregoing discussion summarizes and at the same time expands in a little detail the views and the conclusions prevalent among staffs of our institutions and expressed by them during the course of the present study. The chief advantage of the small-unit organization may be summed up in one word,—*individualization*.

The small-unit plan helps greatly toward the avoidance of mass treatment of the children and toward the provision of individualized training. This is the central consideration around which has revolved most discussion of the respective merits of the congregate, group and cottage systems. There are, however, other considerations. They are not as important as this one, but they are of very real moment. We shall touch lightly upon two or three of the more outstanding ones.

We shall first give some typical experiences of institutions that have changed from the large-unit system to the small-unit system, and shall then give an orderly summary of these experiences.

The small-unit system has succeeded so well that the superintendent and the sisters feel they could never return to the old system, notwithstanding the fact that the present groups, averaging between forty and fifty children each, are very much larger than the staff would desire them to be. The children have a great many of the privileges of home life. They are much more amenable to institutional regulations. There is an all-pervading spirit of happiness. There is, furthermore, a marked group loyalty and shielding. Each group considers its own mother "the best" mother, and the children often have arguments about the qualifications of their respective "mothers" on the playground during recreation time. Children, too, of each group are wont to take the part of any member of the group when juvenile dissensions arise. The sisters feel further that they have been able better to promote the spiritual as well as the physical well-being of the individual child since the small-unit system has been established. The children, for instance, of a given cottage may build up their own special devotion to a particular saint and may erect their own shrine in their cottage to their chosen patron. Each group is purposely permitted much freedom of choice in the decoration of living and sleeping quarters, in the arrangement of beds and furniture, and in other domestic matters. Thus, too, pride in and concern for their "home" is encouraged. These are only some of the many ways in which individuality, freedom, spontaneity and contentment are easily promoted, through the small-unit system. (# 14)

The superior feels that through the small-unit system the

problem of discipline is very much simplified, because the group mother comes to know the children of her own group so much more intimately and individually. (# 67)

The sisters, like those in # 14, feel that they could never return to the older congregate system. They feel nearer to the children and get to know their individual characteristics more intimately. One consequence of this is that the maintenance of discipline is much easier. Each cottage mother is a real mother to the group in her cottage. The children grieve when a mother is transferred or when they themselves are transferred to another cottage. Not infrequently, individual children, after being transferred to another group, have become so homesick that they have been returned to their previous cottage. It is common to hear play-time disputes among the children over the qualifications of their respective "mothers", each child insisting that his is the best. (# 71)

There is very decided cottage loyalty that manifests itself outside the cottage by a feeling of wholesome rivalry with other cottages in athletic contests, in catechism and spelling bees, in school and health records, and in general behavior and good order. The cottage mother endeavors to develop such mutual loyalty on the part of the boys of her group, and in turn the cottage mothers themselves strive in all things to have their own respective cottages make the best record. This spirit of wholesome rivalry permeates nearly all phases of daily life and activities in the institution. In addition, there is a fairly marked attitude on the part both of the cottage mothers and of the boys of a given cottage to defend and shield the members of their own cottage group,—a very healthy attitude distinctly reminiscent of normal family life. (# 66)

Formerly when the institution was organized under the congregate system, all the children ate in one large dining room. After the large dining room was broken up into four sections, the problem of maintaining order therein and of training in table manners was very appreciably simplified. (# 68)

The partitioning of the large dining room into three connecting rooms has led to much less noise and confusion, and to much better discipline and table manners. (# 133)

The small groups under the present small-unit system have

meant fewer rules and disciplinary regulations, more freedom for each child, and greater contentment and happiness. The members of the respective groups have developed a very decided loyalty to one another, and each group has a marked tendency to protect its own members. Two brief illustrations of this protective tendency may be given. In the senior boys' group there is one boy who is very backward and timid. During recreation hours, two or three of the boys of his group may be seen at almost any time coaching him, telling him what to do next, and giving him a signal when his turn comes in the game. In one of the girls' groups, there is a child who is somewhat given to tantrums. The other girls of the group rather ignore her tantrums and overlook her disagreeable manner and when she is over her outbursts will admit her back into their company as if nothing had happened. (# 88)

The foregoing are more or less random illustrations of the many ways in which the small-unit system works out to the advantage both of the children and of the staff. A number of other such secondary advantages are touched upon in the sources given in the bibliography at the end of the present chapter. We may sum up these advantages in somewhat more orderly fashion along the following lines:

a. *Discipline, Freedom and Spontaneity.* Ordinarily, the larger the number of human beings thrown together in more or less intimate contact, the greater is the number of rules necessary to maintain order, to protect the rights of all, and to enforce mutual obligations. Ordinarily, too, the smaller the group, the fewer are the rules and regulations required, and the wider is the scope given to freedom and spontaneity. Where, furthermore, there is less hemming in of liberty, more free play, and more personal leeway, happiness and contentment are enhanced. Moreover, where there are small units, as under the group or cottage system, more can be done in the way of training in self-dependence and self-government, because the relationships between the children of the group as well as the relationships between the group members and the group mothers, are less formal, more flexible, and more personal.

b. *Basic Emotional Needs.* We commonly sum up the basic emotional needs of both child and adult under the following four

headings: security, affection, status, and pleasure. The small-unit system enhances the sense of security, as it gives to the child a definite feeling or conviction that he "belongs" to a given social unit, is an integral part of it, is sheltered and shielded by it and within it, and may fall back upon it at any time as a haven of refuge from the wider world of society beyond. The group is "his", and he at the same time has his secure anchorage therein. Within the small unit, too, under permanent charge of the group mother, he has one from whom he can look for a shielding, a protective, and a more or less exclusive love and affection, as a child in his own family may look for such shielding, understanding, love, and affection from his own parents.

Again, in the small unit the individual child is less apt to be swallowed up and forgotten as may happen in a large unit. In his small unit he has a better chance "to count", a better chance "to be somebody," a better chance to receive at least the minimum of attention which the normal child craves and to achieve at least the minimum of success, recognition and status which is essential to healthy mental and emotional development. Finally, in the small group, inasmuch as liberty is less hampered by rules and formal regulations, the chances for legitimate pleasure and leisure-time adventure are better.

All this is not to say that the satisfaction of these needs cannot be achieved under a congregate system. It unquestionably can be and is being achieved in many an institution conducted under the congregate system. But it seems pretty clear, if we may judge from the experience of those institutions that have changed from the large-unit to the small-unit plan, that under the small-unit plan, it is easier for the institution and for its staff to procure for the children reasonable satisfaction of these normal and basic emotional needs and cravings. Here, as in the matter of individualized training, it is the personality of the staff that counts most. But given equal qualifications on the part of any two staffs working one under the large-unit plan and the other under the small-unit plan, these needs of the child will be more easily and more wholesomely met under the small-unit system. Such at least has been experience to date, if we may generalize from the experience of the institutions reached in the present study.

3. THE PROBLEMS

There is no human system or institution which is one hundred per cent perfect, or which lacks its own peculiar problems. The small-unit system is no exception to this universal social fact. Whenever the question arises as to the relative values of small-unit and large-unit systems, two major problems are apt to come up for discussion. The first one is that the small-unit system may interfere with the community exercises and the religious life of the members of the staff. The second problem raised is that of the expense entailed in changing to and in maintaining the small-unit system. Ordinarily these two problems are suggested as peculiar to the cottage system. Before outlining current institutional experience we may merely premise that so far as interference with community exercises is concerned, there is no more such interference under the outright cottage system than under the group system. So far as the relative costs of the group and cottage plans are concerned, the problem is a little more complicated and its solution less clear.

a. *Community Exercises.* Perhaps the simplest and the most direct way of dealing with this particular question is to reproduce in detail typical expressions of experience on the part of typical institutions working under the group system. Such experience on the part of the sisters themselves is much more to the point than any more general or theoretic comments that could be made. The only comment that we may venture is the somewhat obvious one that quite a large number of our institutions have for years been operating under the small-unit plan,—one of them (# 67) for the last forty years,—and they report unanimously and emphatically that such minor adjustments as are called for by the small-unit system do not appreciably affect either the letter or the spirit of community life.

The staff of the institution,—a straight cottage-plan home,—are decidedly of the view that the inauguration of the cottage plan has in no appreciable manner interfered with or hurt community spirit or community exercises. The staff members are, it is true, separated part of the time, as in each cottage two of the sisters have their sleeping quarters apart from other members of the community. But the sisters have office and Mass together and come together on all sorts of other occa-

sions. In general, it is the experience that there is no more separation of the members of the community than regularly occurs in communities engaged in hospital work. (# 66)

The two sisters in charge of each group take turns relieving each other, while a third sister substitutes for both of them twice a week. In this way, it is the experience of the institution that the group system does not affect to any appreciable extent the religious life of the community. The superior feels that the sisters are there to serve the children, so that even though the group plan were to interfere a little with the community routine, the plan is so much better that the sisters willingly make whatever minor sacrifices may be entailed. (# 67)

In this institution, conducted on the straight cottage plan, the sisters have every opportunity for community life. They all come together for prayers in the morning. The detailed arrangements for the cottage mother give each an opportunity to share in community recreation in the evening. One evening, too, each week all assemble for a general conference on the work. It is the feeling of the sisters that living as they do with the small cottage groups, the religious spirit is constantly fed and fanned through the individual contact, the family-like intimacy, and the confidence which the cottage plan helps to create and encourage. (# 71)

It is the experience of the sisters that the small-unit plan in no way interferes with the religious spirit of the community. The rule of their order, the superior states, is adjusted to fit their duties. (# 97 and # 81)

The sisters feel that the group plan does not interfere at all with the religious spirit of the community. The plan calls for a little more effort so to arrange that the sisters may join in community activities, but such adjustment is actually made and ordinarily all the sisters have their meditation and other religious exercises as well as their meals and recreation in common. This end is accomplished by having lay help relieve each mother at certain specified times and by emphasizing the importance of each sister being present at the community exercises, unless excused for important or emergency reasons. (# 88)

The foregoing excerpts are typical of experience under the small-unit system. During the course of the present study we have come across no complaint from superiors or staffs on the score of small-unit plans interfering with religious spirit or community exercises. Very special inquiry was made on this point during the course of the study. All are agreed who realize the importance of the spiritual element in child-caring work, that it is of basic importance to preserve and build up in every possible way the religious spirit of those into whose hands is committed the responsibility for the children in our institutions. But among all the many group and cottage institutions visited during the present study not one case was found in which the sisters themselves felt that the small-unit plan appreciably interferes with the religious and community spirit of the staff. Perhaps the simplest summary of the situation is the one expressed in one of the foregoing excerpts, namely, that the small-unit plan no more interferes with community spirit than does hospital work. It may be further added that, so far as can be judged from the present study, the straight cottage plan no more interferes with such community spirit than does the group plan proper.

b. *Costs.* Both from the present study and from other studies of child-caring homes, a considerable mass of information is available on gross and itemized costs of building, equipping, and maintaining cottage, group and congregate institutions. The evidence available, however, falls far short of showing with anything like accuracy the real comparative costs of the three types of homes. The data at hand give accurate information on actual costs. But such actual costs throw little or no light on the question of the real relative costs of the three systems.

(1) *Actual Costs.* The data obtained in the present study on initial construction costs may be omitted entirely. Such costs differ so widely, according to locality, date of construction, and quality of building material and of equipment, that they throw no light on the question of real comparative costs of the three types of institution. The data gathered on maintenance costs are little if at all more illuminating. Accurate per diem maintenance costs were obtainable from only twelve of the institutions studied. These data are as follows:

In three of the cottage institutions, per diem maintenance costs per child are \$1.14, \$0.98, and \$0.58 respectively. In three of the

group institutions the same costs are \$1.07, \$0.98, and \$0.70 respectively. In six of the congregate institutions per diem costs are \$1.14, \$1.06, \$0.69, \$0.68, \$0.47 and \$0.40 respectively. Ranges in maintenance costs are wider within each of the three types of institution than between the averages for the three types. Costs are higher in three of the above nine group and congregate institutions than in two of the three cottage institutions, and higher in seven of the nine group and congregate homes than in one of the cottage homes.

The same wide range of maintenance costs in cottage and congregate homes for dependent children was found by Hart in his study made two decades ago (*Cottage and Congregate Institutions*, 1910, 49-51). Hart's study included seventeen congregate institutions and ten cottage institutions for dependent children. Current expenses per child in the congregate institutions ranged from \$68 to \$327 a year, with an average of \$118 while the range in the ten cottage institutions was from \$159 per child to \$272, with an average of \$196. The congregate institutions studied included seven Catholic ones. Leaving out of the calculation the Catholic institutions on account of the salary item, Hart found that in the non-Catholic institutions the per capita costs for the congregate ones was \$175 per child as compared with \$196 per child for the cottage institutions. This reduces the average difference from \$78 to \$21 per child between the two types of institutions. This difference is still further reduced by differences in type and quality of service provided for the children in the way of food, clothing, medical care, and so forth.

Hart also found wide differences as regards cost of plant (i. e., 44-47). In the seventeen congregate institutions, the cost of plant per bed ranged from a minimum of \$376 to a maximum of \$1,671, with an average of \$758, while the cost in the ten cottage institutions ranged from \$869 to \$1,716, with an average of \$1,181. He adds by way of comment: "It will be observed that the average cost of the cottage institutions is 56 per cent greater than that of the congregate institutions. It must be considered, however, that the cottage institutions were most of them built at a more expensive time than the congregate institutions and that four of the congregate institutions cost from \$1,400 to \$1,670 per bed, while only one of the cottage institutions cost more than \$1,400 per bed".

(2) *Interpretation of Actual Costs.* It is obvious from the foregoing figures that the actual variations in construction and maintenance costs are dependent in very minor measure, if at all, on whether the institution is cottage, group, or congregate in type. Even if the cottage institutions had consistently higher gross costs both of construction and of maintenance than have the group and congregate institutions, no valid conclusions regarding real comparative costs could be drawn from such gross actual costs. Institutions,—be they cottage, group, or congregate,—differ widely in building material and equipment, in type and quality of service rendered the children, in relative proportions of salaried and unsalaried staff, in proportions of supplies grown, made, donated or purchased, in supplementary income, in bookkeeping systems, and in many other ways. Before one could draw conclusions from gross actual construction or maintenance costs as to the real comparative costs of the three types of institutions, all these other many factors that enter into gross costs would have to be equalized and eliminated in order to isolate the factor of institutional type. Such a task is obviously a highly complicated one that would require extensive joint investigation by expert accountants and by institutional authorities intimately familiar with every minute detail of institutional finance and program. Such an elaborate investigation was found to be beyond the financial and personnel limitations of the present study. Our present information therefore does not permit us to draw accurate and confident conclusions. We are of necessity thrown back upon what we may call reasonable surmise.

So far as such reasonable surmise is valid at all, we may raise the question as to whether there is actually any real difference at all between the construction and maintenance costs of the three types of institutions as such. It is true that ordinarily a large building housing a given number of people costs less than a group of small detached residences or cottages housing the same number of people. Such theoretically higher costs are, however, to no small extent offset, and perhaps entirely offset, by the fact that a large congregate building must be fireproof, while separate cottages may be built of slow-burning material and need not be fireproof.

As for maintenance costs, the larger items such as food, clothing, laundry, medical care, schooling, recreation, and so forth, are

of their nature practically independent of type of institution. Such differences in maintenance as may possibly exist would be in the matter of cost of domestic services. But even this item is largely dependent on local conditions. Strictly speaking, there is little or no necessity for a larger amount of help under the cottage or group system than under the congregate system. In illustration of this fact we may instance three typical cottage, group, and congregate institutions included in the present study. The proportion of adult staff, including lay help, to child population in these three institutions runs as follows: in the cottage institution, one adult to 4.1 children; in the group, one adult to 5.9 children; and in the congregate, one adult to 4.2 children.

It is probably a little more expensive to have food prepared in separate cottage kitchens than it is to have the food prepared in one main kitchen, but under both the cottage and the group systems the food can be prepared in the main kitchen if preferred. It actually is so prepared in a main kitchen in a number of cottage institutions without very appreciably interfering with the value of the cottage type of institution. On the other hand, the cost of heating under the cottage plan is probably lower, as there is less space given to large stairways, broad corridors, and high-ceilinged rooms.

There is a rather widespread feeling that the maintenance of cottage institutions is *necessarily* highly expensive, far more so than the maintenance of group or congregate institutions. The cold figures given above show clearly that this is by no means the case. It is true that the construction and maintenance costs of a number of cottage institutions have run and do run quite high. This is largely due, not to the fact that they are cottage institutions, but to the fact that these particular institutions have resources above the average, and consequently, having more to spend, they actually spend more.

The foregoing discussion is very far from being conclusive. This problem of comparative costs is only one among many institutional problems the solution of which must await the gathering of much more detailed and objective evidence than we command at present. But two conclusions are clear and definite. First, there is no demonstrative or even probable proof for the common assumption that construction and maintenance costs of cottage institutions

are of their nature higher than such costs of group institutions, and that such costs of group institutions are higher than such costs of congregate institutions. Secondly, if differences in cost exist at all they are relatively slight. Even were the differences very appreciable, this should be no insuperable obstacle for wealthy America, if the cottage or group plan is needed by our children. The cheapest would be the most expensive.

The whole foregoing discussion of the relative merits of the small-unit (cottage or group) system and the large-unit (congregate) system may be summarized as follows. Of the two chief problems to which the small-unit system is thought to give rise, that of interference with community spirit has been successfully met and overcome, while the second, that of assumed greater cost, is still an open question on which final judgment cannot be passed. If the small-unit system is at all more expensive, the difference in cost is certainly very much less than is commonly assumed. On the other hand, the many and fundamental advantages of a small-unit plan far outweigh any possible disadvantages thereof. Guided by the light of the sisters' experience during these last four decades, we have no hesitation in *recommending wholeheartedly the general adoption of the small-unit plan, with the units limited to a maximum of twenty children each.*

D. GROUP AND COTTAGE PLANS

Theoretically, group and cottage institutions are alike in the main as regards their small-unit plan of organization. The most obvious difference is in equipment. In this respect, the group institution resembles the apartment house or apartment hotel, while the cottage institution resembles the small village or hamlet.

In favor of the cottage plan, it is sometimes advanced that if each cottage has its own separate kitchen and laundry, excellent experience and training in household management and the domestic arts can be provided. This is undoubtedly true. But actually many cottage-plan institutions do not have separate kitchens and laundries, while theoretically separate kitchens and laundries are quite possible under the outright group system. Under either system, each unit can be budgeted and conducted independently.

One of the most important functions carried out by parents

is interpreting life to their children in the light of everyday happenings at home and abroad. The function is carried out in the family circle daily and hourly, at meals, at work, at play and on all sorts of other occasions. Much of the best parental influence in mental, moral, and religious training is exercised in this way. This can be done under the group system, but probably with a greater degree of intimacy, privacy, and informality under the cottage system.

There are two particular and very important respects in which the cottage plan seems clearly to have a decided advantage over the group or apartment plan.

First, there is ample ground in actual experience for maintaining that the cottage plan safeguards much better both the letter and the spirit of the small-unit system itself. There is less temptation to increase size of units and to scatter responsibility.

Secondly, the cottage atmosphere is more homelike and less hivelike. The cottage affords a greater degree of privacy and intimacy, of domestic quiet and restfulness, of sense of seclusion and shelter from the larger world outside. Under the cottage plan mass treatment, institutional spirit and atmosphere, and institutionalization itself have less chance to gain a foothold.

These two considerations bring us face to face with some of the subtler and more intangible forces and influences that affect institutional life. We are realizing more and more that these subtle and intangible forces and influences are often much more important than obvious and tangible ones.

To sum up this brief discussion, we may say that the cottage plan appears to have all the advantages of the group plan, and, in addition, certain important advantages not shared by the group plan. The chief among these latter are the provision of a more homelike atmosphere and the better safeguarding of the letter and the spirit of the small-unit system.

On the other hand, we have constantly to bear in mind that, physical equipment, however valuable a factor, is not sufficient. A cottage institution that is the showplace of the countryside and the pride of the citizenry can be a hollow mockery, unless lofty self-sacrifice, high principles, and farsighted and alert intelligence guide and shape its destinies. There is no royal architectural road to success in child care and child training.

Recommendations. In the light of the foregoing discussion, we may make the following basic recommendations:

1. For institutions entirely rebuilding or newly building their plants, the outright cottage plan, each cottage housing not more than twenty children at the most.
2. For institutions undertaking extensive additions to their existing plant, the addition of cottage units, rather than of new wings or apartment buildings.
3. For institutions planning major changes, the erection of new cottage units instead of the radical remodeling of older quarters, with a view to ultimate demolition of the latter or else to their transformation into classrooms, gymnasium, etc.
4. For institutions planning minor alterations to their existing congregate buildings, such alterations along the apartment-group type of housing.

One very successful non-Catholic institution, with ample endowment funds for erecting new cottages is instead renting already built cottages and residences adjacent to its grounds. One of our Catholic institutions has been seriously considering a similar plan. As the plan has not actually been tried out by any Catholic institution known to us, we hesitate to recommend it outright, but we have no hesitation in recommending that its advisability be given serious consideration, where local conditions make possible its adoption.

E. VARIATIONS WITHIN THE GROUP AND COTTAGE SYSTEMS

While unanimity of view prevails regarding the higher relative advantages of the small-unit systems as such, there are many differences of view regarding certain specific features of the system. These differences of view obtain particularly regarding the following four questions. What should be the size of the units under the group or cottage system? Should units be composed of children of the same age or of mixed ages? Should units be composed both of boys and girls, or should there be no mingling of the sexes in the same unit? Under the small-unit plan, should there be a separate kitchen for each unit, or should the food for all units be prepared in the main kitchen?

I. SIZE OF UNITS

It is not possible to demonstrate that any given size of unit is the ideal one. In general, it may be said that the smaller the unit the better. A unit of seventy-five or one hundred is manifestly too large. A unit even of forty or fifty, while better than one of seventy-five or a hundred, is still too large. The unit of twenty is better. The unit of from ten to fifteen is still better. If we may be guided by clues furnished by the size of the average family, as well as by the size of the spontaneous boys' gang or girls' set, we may say that the ideal unit should contain less than ten children.

We are here speaking of ideals. Everyone, however, engaged in institution work is perfectly aware that such ideals are for the present, among the vast majority of institutions, not practically realizable. It becomes necessary, not to lower the ideal itself, but to compromise with cold realities, such as lack of sufficient personnel and finances.

Practically, it may be recommended that every effort be made to keep units under a maximum of twenty children each. This recommendation is made with two provisions. First, the number is suggested, not as an ideal, but as a practical maximum, a maximum to be reduced to a smaller number, fifteen or twelve, so soon as resources of personnel and finance permit. Secondly, it should be also understood that where an institution is not in a position to reduce its units to twenty children each, it is well to reduce it to a number as near at least to this as is practical.

Our small-unit institutions operating under a system that permits from forty to fifty in a group have taken a long step away from the system of groups of seventy-five, a hundred, or more. They clearly realize, however, that a grouping of from forty to fifty is too large for proper individualization of the child, and they look forward hopefully to the day when they can cut their units to one-half the present size. To sum up: *The unit of twenty is recommended as an immediate objective, with units of fifteen or under as an ulterior one.*

2. AGE GROUPINGS: HORIZONTAL VERSUS VERTICAL

Some institutions prefer to have each unit composed of children of approximately the same age or grade. Other institutions

prefer a vertical age grouping, and believe that better results are obtained if the units are composed of children varying in age.

Institutions with the vertical age-grouping plan feel that such units approximate more closely to the vertical age-grouping that obtains in the family. Some of the chief concrete advantages that are felt to accrue from this plan are the following:

Each older child in a unit has a certain care of one of the younger ones in the unit. This is made possible by the vertical age-grouping. The older children are extremely fond of their younger charges, and get a good deal of experience in accepting a degree of responsibility for them, in coaching and training them, and in making generous child-level sacrifices for them. They assume only about as much responsibility as is assumed by older children for younger within normal good families. (# 14)

Under the vertical age-grouping system that prevails, it is easily possible to keep siblings together in the same cottage, and thus to strengthen fraternal ties and to maintain family spirit among siblings. In each cottage there prevails a great deal of solicitude on the part of the older boys toward the younger ones, particularly in the case of siblings, but also on the part of boys who are not at all related by blood. The vertical age plan has the advantage also of permitting easy transfer of a boy from one unit to another, where it is found by trial that he does not fit well into the unit to which he has first been assigned. The plan has a further advantage, too, in that it has made possible the setting aside of one of the cottages for boys of all ages who present difficult problems. This particular unit for problem boys is headed by a sister with a very special gift for dealing with these types. The boys themselves are not at all aware that they are assigned to this particular cottage for this reason. (# 66)

The older children are extremely fond of the very young children in their own unit. They are not given heavy responsibilities toward the younger children, but very gladly accept lighter responsibilities toward them both within the cottage and on the playground. They commonly ask to have very young children live with them in their cottages. In case of maladjustment of a given child to a given unit, a transfer

to another unit frequently solves the problem very easily. (# 71)

The vertical system is preferred. It approximates more closely the conditions in family life. We find in our experience with our different institutions, that children who associate only with those of their own age and mental caliber, do not develop as rapidly and as evenly as do those in mixed-aged groups. In the parental home, the child imbibes new ideas, enlarges his vocabulary, and increases his general knowledge in association with his elders. The children seem happier under the vertical system. It gives an outlet to the mothering tendencies of the older girls and to the protective tendencies of the older boys. This brings out much that is best in both. The plan also works the other way round. For the younger children are anxious to measure up to the requirements of their juvenile guardians and champions, and such requirements tend to be quite high ones. A serious drawback of the vertical plan, however, is that the older children are apt to monopolize leadership. (# 201)

Under the vertical system, the youngest who need help get it from the older children; the children of medium age help themselves, and develop initiative and self-dependence; the older children help others, and so learn the meaning of leadership, of fraternal responsibility, and of family planning. (# 320)

The other other side of the picture is presented in the following excerpts.

The plan of grouping the children of different ages in each unit was tried out for a period of three years and finally abandoned as unsatisfactory. The older children tended to a certain extent to impose on the younger ones in the group. Moreover, in spite of the vertical age-grouping, the children of the same ages tended to come together through common sympathy and interests in recreation, school work, and so forth. The system was therefore discontinued, amid a cheer given both by the children and the sisters. The result has been greater contentment, less artificiality, and, in consequence, less necessity for anything like nagging. (# 88)

Children differ in interests according to age, and they ordi-

narily prefer companions of their own age. They seem happier when associating with others of the same age-level. Where there is age separation, each group has a better chance to develop its own leaders, and there is not present the tendency of the older members of the group to dominate the junior ones. So far as siblings are concerned, they have many daily opportunities of coming together on the playground and elsewhere, and moreover, are allowed to sit together at table. (# 81)

In view of the differing experience among our institutions, it is not easy to decide which plan is the better. Much can be said for each one. The general tendency among our institutions is towards horizontal age grouping. However, whether this be the result of immediate experience of superior advantages or whether it be more a survival from the traditional horizontal age-grouping under the congregate system cannot be determined. We do not feel that in the present stage of our knowledge we have sufficient grounds for recommending outright either the horizontal or the vertical system. We may, however, recommend further trial of the newer vertical grouping in order to get a broader basis in experience as to its value in comparison with the horizontal grouping.

3. SEX GROUPING

Only one of our institutions has tried the experiment of having boys and girls together in the same cottage.

Boys and girls from three to fourteen years of age live in the same cottage. The boys and girls, of course, have their separate dormitories and lavatories in each cottage, but eat in the same dining room and are part of the same unit. The plan has involved no problems whatsoever. On the other hand, it is felt that by having these younger children of both sexes together, cottage life approximates much more closely that of normal home life. Moreover, under this plan it is very easy to have brothers and sisters live together, and thus to help keep family ties and affections cemented. (# 71, — a cottage institution)

4. PREPARATION OF FOOD

In all the Catholic group and cottage institutions studied, the food is prepared in the main kitchen. In some institutions, it is served in a partitioned common dining room; in others, in strictly isolated group dining rooms. In one Catholic institution now under construction, each cottage will have its own independent cottage kitchen. In non-Catholic cottage institutions, the decided tendency seems to be toward separate kitchens for each cottage.

The separate kitchen helps make the unit an independent and self-sufficing one, as in the case of the normal family. Furthermore, it provides much opportunity for training the girls in household management and in small-quantity preparation and serving of food. These are appreciable advantages. On the other hand, under the system of preparing food in the main kitchen, various devices can be and are used, as noted in the chapter on Education in the present manual, to give the children a certain measure of practice in small-quantity cooking and serving.

It is urged against the separate kitchen that under this plan each cottage mother must be a good dietitian. But a flexible dietary made out from the central office will give her dietetic guidance and at the same time allow her leeway in choice of foods.

If there is a central kitchen, the cottage mother, being relieved of the task of preparing and serving food, has more time to devote to the training of the children under her charge. On the other hand, if they take part with her in the preparation and serving of food, this intimate contact provides an excellent medium not only for domestic training but also for general guidance and education.

The separate kitchen gives the unit a greater degree of isolation. The question may, however, be raised as to whether this is so important, provided the units already have their own exclusive group mothers as well as their own exclusive living and sleeping quarters. After all, even in the family home, children are not by any means entirely isolated from the rest of the world. They meet their own playmates outside the walls of the home; they meet their fellows at school and on the street; after they approach the teen age, they have their own gangs and sets. This extradomestic contact with the wider world does them no harm, so far as we can see. On the contrary, it may do them a great deal of good, inasmuch as it accustoms

them to living as members of large groups in the world, and facilitates the transition that we all must make in passing from the family and kin associations of early childhood to the wider associations of adolescent and adult life.

Perhaps the most important advantage that can be urged in favor of the separate cottage kitchen is that it gives a more homelike atmosphere.

F. GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

The feasibility of changing from the large-unit to the small-unit system is obviously in very large measure a local problem. It is probable, however, that in practically all institutions conducted on the large-unit plan, some beginnings can be made toward shifting to the small-unit plan. If an institution, owing to limitations of personnel and finance, is not in a position to make the change at once and entirely, nevertheless much can be done by proceeding gradually, step by step. As for the changes or additions in the way of physical equipment, these will vary necessarily from institution to institution. It is advisable in any case to secure the services of a first-class architect and to have the remodeling or additional building done only after mature consideration and consultation.

Where it is not possible to install an outright cottage or group system, it may be quite possible to make certain less radical changes in the way of partitioning large dining-rooms, dormitories, and indoor playrooms. It is not possible, in a matter of this kind, to present detailed recommendations. Conditions in the various institutions differ too widely. Where, however, there is the desire to shift to a small-unit system, there will always be found a way, if not to install it at once on a hundred per cent basis, at least to make a very real beginning towards such an end.

REFERENCES

Our best description of the group system is that given in "Program for Catholic childcaring homes," Report of the Committee on standards, Sisters' conference, *Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1923, 9-14. For a detailed evaluation of the advantages of the plan, see Mother M. Suso, "Concrete results from application of program for child-caring homes," in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1925, 291-97, with "Discussion" by Sister Lucilla and Sister Celestine, 297-303. Our best general description and evaluation of the three systems,—cottage, group, and congregate,—with particular attention to the cottage plan is *Handbook for institutions*,

U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, 1927, 26-33. For details on building plans (with many photos and reproductions of actual floor plans), floor space, comparative construction and maintenance costs, see H. H. Hart, *Cottage and congregate institutions for children*, Russell Sage foundation, N. Y., 1910,—a field study of 50 institutions, including 27 homes for dependent children. Suggestive details on some of the Catholic group and cottage institutions may be found in: *Cath. char. rev.*, Jan., 1923, vii, 20-21. June, 1927, xi, 221-24; Oct., 1927, xi, 309-10; May, 1928, xii, 170-71; and in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, 1927, 351-53. For details on non-Catholic cottage institutions, consult individual annual reports. We urgently recommend that the authorities of any institution who are considering a change to the group or cottage system visit personally typical Catholic and non-Catholic institutions operating on the small-unit plan. A half-dozen such visits are worth more than a study of all the literature ever published on the subject.

CHAPTER XI

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE

In the present chapter we shall deal: first, very briefly, with the question of ownership and incorporation; secondly, in more detail, with the chief problems of administration; and thirdly, with the matter of finances.

A. OWNERSHIP AND INCORPORATION

Of the institutions included in the present study, about one half are owned by the dioceses in which they are located; about one third, by the religious orders, congregations or societies conducting them; about one sixth, by ecclesiastical corporations.

All of the institutions on which pertinent data were gathered are incorporated. Incorporation is required by law in some states. In any case it is desirable. An incorporated child-caring home can hold property indefinitely without criticism on the score of legal provisions against perpetuities and mortmain. Legacies can be received without the embarrassments that may arise if the institution be not incorporated. Incorporation gives an added safeguard against loss. An incorporated child-caring home, coming as it does within the class of eleemosynary corporations, is much freer than corporations conducted for gain. Incorporation, it need hardly be added, has to be carried out in conformity with the laws of the state under which the institution is incorporated.

B. ADMINISTRATION

Most of our institutions have a governing board, called the board of directors, the board of managers, or some equivalent name. The structure and functions of the board and its relations to the staff differ widely from institution to institution. In the present section we shall deal: first, with the board of directors, and secondly with the superintendent, superior, and staff.

I. BOARD OF DIRECTORS

a. *Membership.* In a large number of our institutions (e.g., # 18, # 19, # 20, # 22, # 39, # 55, # 64, # 70, # 76, # 79, # 81), the board of directors is made up entirely of sisters, usually chosen partly from the motherhouse and partly from the resident staff. In a great many others (e.g., # 6, # 14, # 27, # 45, # 52, # 63, # 68, # 71, # 72, # 80, # 93, # 98, # 99, # 103), the board of directors is either in part or in whole composed of laymen. In a few, the board consists entirely of members of the clergy (e.g., # 26, # 31) or else of clergy and sisters (e.g., # 29, # 67).

The more common custom where there is a lay or mixed lay board is to choose the lay members from the more prominent Catholic business and professional men of the community. Generally speaking, it is found well to have on the board not only men of wide business experience, but also representatives of the various professions,—such as the medical, nursing, dental, legal, engineering, teaching, and social-work professions,—who are in a position to bring expert counsel to the board's deliberations and decisions. It would seem advisable too to have laywomen as well as laymen on the board.

We should also like to recommend earnestly that there be adequate representation on the board from the middle and lower income groups in the community. Most boards concern themselves largely with the financial affairs of the institution, and consequently it is of primary importance that the business world be well represented on the board. Monopoly of membership, however, by a business group or by any other one group makes for a one-sided viewpoint. The child-caring home touches life at every point. Its governing board functions best if it represents the viewpoint and experience, not only of the business and professional groups, but also of the great masses of the people.

One of the gravest hazards to-day to our American social work, Catholic and other, is its marked tendency to come under the control of the upper income groups. This is alienating the sympathy and support of the great middle and lower income groups, who feel they are contributing without having due part in shaping policies. Moreover, where the upper income groups control, there is less like-

lihood that attention will be given to remedying the economic injustices that are largely responsible for adult and child dependency. Furthermore, upper-income-group control is far removed from the democratic Catholic ideal as exemplified, for instance, in the personnel of our official and semi-official Catholic agencies of charity, such as the diocesan and parochial authorities and the religious orders, or in typical lay organizations like the St. Vincent de Paul Society. Nor does it seem in harmony with the consistent Catholic tradition that charity and participation in charitable enterprises are a duty and privilege, not only of the well-to-do, but also of the members of all other classes of society.

b. *Appointment and Election.* The method of appointment or election to the board differs widely among our institutions. In some institutions, officers and members are elected by vote of the board; in others, they are appointed by the bishop of the diocese; in others, they are appointed by the motherhouse or elected by the sisters who constitute the staff. Likewise the length of term differs. Limited terms of three years or less, are preferable to appointment or election for life. Rotating membership under which one-third of the members' terms expire each year gives easy opportunity to eliminate "dead wood" and to bring in new blood.

c. *Committees.* Where the governing board is large, or where difficulties stand in the way of the whole board meeting easily, it is customary for the board to appoint a smaller executive committee that meets more frequently and handles current problems and situations as they arise. The boards of some institutions have also found it advisable to appoint special sub-committees to undertake particular responsibilities. The executive committee may be composed of the chairmen of the sub-committees.

The board of managers has a number of subcommittees, including a Committee on Social Service, a Committee on Health, a Committee on Physical Equipment. (# 68)

The board appoints a number of committees that take responsibility for special activities,—e. g., House Committee, Garden Committee, Purchasing Committee. These committees work in cooperation with the superior and with the Catholic Charities office which is responsible for the institution's case work. (# 103)

d. *Meetings.* The frequency of board meetings varies considerably. Such frequency is determined largely by the functions undertaken by the board. A great many institutions feel the necessity for monthly meetings. If, as is the more common custom, the meetings take place at the institution itself, the members have opportunity to come into closer personal touch with the work of the institution.

Where the superintendent is not a member of the board, he or she should nevertheless be present at board meetings, to serve as the interpreter of the institution to the board, and as the interpreter of the board to the institution. It goes without saying that written records or minutes should be kept of all board meetings.

The use of agenda (as in # 11) for board meetings is highly desirable. The agenda are made out beforehand in carbon or mimeo, and a copy given to each member of the board. The use of agenda makes for businesslike procedure in the meeting. It is decidedly preferable that such agenda be transmitted to the board members some days prior to the meeting. For thus opportunity is given to the members to study, to seek counsel upon, and to think over the problems in advance and so be in a position to act with a fuller knowledge and a more mature and deliberate judgment.

Meetings should begin promptly, on the minute. They should not be too long drawn out.

e. *Functions.* Whether the functions of the board of directors are to be confined chiefly to financial matters or are to include counsel and decisions upon policies and program of the institution, is a matter that must be decided locally. In either case, however, it is highly important that the members of the board be intimately conversant with and actively interested in the whole work of the institution. Even where the functions of the board are dominantly or exclusively financial, it is obvious that the members should have a broad and a clear grasp of the varied problems confronting the institution. One cannot vote intelligently on expenditures without an intelligent understanding of the needs to be met by such expenditures. Many expansions of policy and program call for financial outlays that may be granted or denied by the governing board. Unless the board understands institution work, it must inevitably make unwise decisions. Furthermore, boards are frequently given the responsibility of securing the financial resources needed for the op-

eration of the institution and for the betterment of its program. An active interest based upon close personal knowledge of what the institution is doing, and how and why in detail it is doing it, is usually a prerequisite to enthusiasm for and progressive cooperation in the work of the institution.

Our institutions that have active and informed boards dealing both with policies and with finances are sincerely appreciative of the great help such boards can be to the staff. They aid the institution notably in launching and carrying out improved policies and programs, and exercise an important and a salutary influence in securing community support for and cooperation in the institution's labors.

Except where boards are made up of members who are professionally engaged in institutional work, knowledge and understanding of institutional policies, programs, and objectives must be acquired by members through various channels. Such knowledge and understanding may be gained by the members of the board through frequent personal visits made to the institution or to other institutions, through attendance at social work conferences and institutes, through personal contact and discussion with Catholic and non-Catholic workers in the institutional field, through acquaintance with current institutional literature, in periodicals, proceedings, institutional reports, and so forth. During the present study we have found a number of boards, members of which have acquired a splendid grasp of institutional problems through such means as the foregoing.

It is manifestly part of the superintendent's or superior's task to present to the board the institution's problems in such a way as to make sure they will know the problems thoroughly before passing upon measures to meet them. This is one reason why the superintendent, even though he be not a member of the board, should sit in at meetings. But quite apart from formal meetings, the alert superintendent or superior can do very much, through written or verbal reports to the board and through personal conferences with the individual members thereof, to put at their disposal the intimate knowledge of conditions which he or she has acquired through daily participation in the administration of the home's affairs. It is also part of the superintendent's task to present forcefully and convinc-

ingly new ideas to the board. Incidentally, if he or she is fired with enthusiasm for and pride in the work of the institution, it will be relatively easy to inspire the board with a large measure of the same enthusiasm and pride.

The foregoing paragraphs represent a composite picture of what is being done in our institutions toward making the board of directors an active force for good, not only in the matter of financial counsel and control, but also in most or in all phases of the institution's work. The following excerpt is added in illustration of a special use of sub-committee reports to attain the same end.

At the quarterly meeting of the board of managers, the superintendent presents a report on movement of population during the preceding three months and on general problems of admission and discharge. The chairman of the Social Service Committee offers a report on special problems that have arisen regarding admission and discharge of children. The chairman of the Medical Staff gives a report on the health work for the children. (# 68)

2. STAFF

a. *Organization and Administrative Policies.* (1) *Structure.* In addition to the board of directors, the personnel of the institution comprises the superintendent or superior and the general staff. In a good many of our institutions the superintendent is a priest. He frequently serves as chaplain as well as superintendent. Where the superintendent is a priest, a division of duties and responsibilities between the superintendent and the superioress or mother needs to be worked out carefully.

The staff is divided into various departments in accordance with local conditions and needs. The more common divisions of the staff are: supervisory, teaching, householding (often including laundry, farm, engineer, carpenter, watchman, and so forth), office, health, recreation, and social work. Ordinarily the supervisory and teaching staff is made up of sisters or brothers. The other divisions of the staff are frequently made up in whole or part of lay workers. A few institutions have, in addition to the chaplain, a special department of moral guidance, discipline, or both, heading up in one person, a sister, who gives full time to the work.

(2) *Functions and Policies.* Smooth-running organization and efficient teamwork among the personnel depend very largely upon the personality of the superintendent or superior. General policies of administration, however, as well as type of organization contribute very appreciably towards the same end. The following quotations illustrate some of the more successful of these policies and types.

The sister superior believes that her staff sisters, like other human beings, appreciate encouragement and praise, and she gives such encouragement and praise wherever and whenever deserved. She is always conscious of their contributions and they know it. If she thinks a sister might perform her duties better through methods different from the ones being used, she will speak to the sister about the matter. If the sister is averse to change of method and the children do not suffer appreciably from current practice, she does not insist on a change. The superior believes that if a sister is performing her duty well, not only should she be told she is doing so, but she should also be told why. Insight and appreciation of this kind keep the staff's enthusiasm high. She feels further that the staff must be reminded how much it is accomplishing in spite of unavoidable limitations. The health, ability, and aptitudes of each member of the staff should be taken into consideration by the efficient director, and staff duties should be shifted in accordance therewith wherever necessary and possible. (# 11)

The superintendent makes it a systematic policy to refer the children, whenever any problem arises, directly to the staff member under whose supervision the given child is. Thus he avoids going over the staff member's head. Responsibility as well as credit are definitely apportioned to each and every member of the staff, all the way down the line. Where a new plan or policy is being considered for adoption, the staff members most immediately concerned therein are always the ones most fully consulted. (# 14)

The mother superior gladly welcomes suggestions from the staff sisters, and makes it a practice to elicit their advice and counsel. Every sister in charge of a given department is encouraged to take large leeway and initiative in developing her department. (# 18, # 124)

Responsibility for the conduct of each department is definitely lodged in the one who has charge thereof. Thus is avoided any need, on the part of the superior, for acting over the head of the staff member. (# 64)

The members of the staff have full authority in their respective tasks and departments. The superior makes it a point never to interfere, unless some unusual problem or emergency arises. (# 67)

Members of the staff in charge of departments are not only free to offer suggestions to the superior, but are encouraged to do so. (# 201)

Some of the general policies of administration are the following. First, each member of the staff is given as much responsibility as possible, is encouraged to exercise as much initiative as is consistent with order, and is made to feel that she is handling her own job. Responsibility and initiative are thus decentralized and distributed to the maximum consistent with good policy and teamwork. Secondly, if a new plan or policy is under consideration, every endeavor is made so to propose it to the staff as to secure voluntary acceptance of it and free and willing cooperation in its execution. (# 66)

The superintendent deals directly with the sister superior, and the superior directly with the members of the staff. Every member of the staff is given opportunity to make suggestions and to request any change for betterment. So far as possible, departmental autonomy is preserved; each sister is given full responsibility for her assigned tasks and is expected to carry them out. So far as possible, too, she is put upon her own initiative. The superior holds "invisible reins" over all the staff. She does not herself carry responsibility for any particular department, but spends her time going from one department to the other, wherever she is most needed. Departmental heads make arrangements for their various activities through the superior, and all departments bring their problems to her. The institution has a smooth-running organization with whole-hearted teamwork and open-minded cooperation on the part of all members of the staff. The following appear to be some of the chief factors responsible for these results:

New plans are carefully thought out before being tried, and members of the staff become fully acquainted with the details before the plan is put into execution.

There are frequent consultations of superintendent and superior, of superior and department heads, and of department heads and staff members in the department.

Close attention is given to the details of each plan.

The superintendent is always on the ground, lives at the institution, knows thoroughly the details of the institution's affairs, and is in touch with the everyday life of the children.

The sisters have been relieved entirely of the necessity of raising money for the institution, and so can devote themselves more freely to giving thought to new and progressive methods.

The initial difficulties in the way of developing whole-hearted cooperation were overcome by patience, by much consultation, and by very particular effort to reach the point of mutual understanding. The sisters at the institution have a background and tradition of progressiveness which leads them to demand the best for their children and for their institution.

The work of the social service department has had its share in bringing about the present situation. By regulating and limiting admissions, it has lightened the burden of all the staff. In 1927 there were 42 new admissions as against 104 in 1919, the department's first year. This cutting down of intake has greatly facilitated assimilation of new children to the group and has enabled the sisters to give greater individual attention to them. When the majority of the population are well trained, they predominate and set the example for the incoming new children. (# 88)

Recommendations. From these illustrations of successful practices in the matter of administrative policies, we may formulate in more systematic manner a few of the more important leading principles.

- (a) Define clearly, preferably in writing, the duties of each department and of each member of the staff. If each departmental head or member of the staff is asked to submit a job analysis of his or her duties, the lines of responsibilities can be kept clearer and over-lapping avoided. The making of an organization chart may also be suggested as an aid to clear definition of responsibilities.
- (b) Pin down responsibility for given tasks on one specified person who will be responsible for their execution. So far as possible have the different departments head up in some one person. What is everybody's business, and in fact what is even two persons' business, is apt to be nobody's.
- (c) Each member of the staff should know definitely the person to whom he or she is immediately responsible.
- (d) Never act over the head of the person in charge of a given department. Route directions through the head of the department, if such directions need to come from the superior or superintendent.
- (e) Distribute and decentralize authority and responsibility to the maximum consistent with efficiency.
- (f) Leave maximum leeway and initiative to those in charge of a given task or department. Have every one understand that the job is his or her own. Do not interfere therein unless serious mistakes occur or are threatened. It is better, all things considered, that minor mistakes be permitted, than that the sense of initiative, freedom, and responsibility be undermined.
- (g) Hold each member of the staff to fullest and strictest fulfillment of his or her duties, but know when to close your eyes to faults and imperfections.
- (h) Do not overburden willing members of a staff with more than they can reasonably bear and efficiently accomplish. Of this more will be said below in dealing with the question of staff load. Hard work hurts no one who is in good health, but the hardest and most willing worker has

limitations, and needs a certain amount of relaxation and recreation.

- (i) When inaugurating a new policy, make sure the plan is fully understood by all concerned,—the staff always, and the children too in many cases,—before it is put into operation, and make sure as well of whole-hearted cooperation. The best plan can go on the rocks if the staff misunderstands it or is out of sympathy with it. Sheer obedience, however conscientious, is not enough.
- (j) Two heads are usually better than one. Where counsel is sought from the members of the staff, particularly in the departments with which they are severally more familiar, the institution and the children usually are the gainers. Mutual consultation makes for teamwork and for contentment. The personal interest of each member of the staff is deepened. If his or her counsel is taken seriously, more thought will be given by him or her to improvement in methods. Excellent suggestions can often be obtained from the children themselves and should be cordially welcomed.
- (k) A member of a religious order who gives his or her life to the service of God and man, seeks first and above all the approval of God. But entering a religious order does not kill the natural human craving for approval and reasonable recognition. To paraphrase St. Paul, give credit and recognition where credit and recognition are due.
- (l) Welcome frank criticism, accept it with honest humility, and weigh it impersonally, objectively, seriously, with a single eye to its justice and to the possibilities it suggests for better work for God and His children.
- (m) Orderly development is secured through a wise compromise between stability and change, between conservatism and radicalism. Radical changes, made too suddenly and without preliminary preparation of the ground, are apt not only not to produce fruit, but may even dampen or destroy enthusiasm for and cooperation in desirable progressive measures. On the other hand, an institution that is fully

satisfied with its actual policies and program, lies stagnant. An institution that inaugurates no new methods or policies and has none in contemplation is drifting, and is usually drifting backwards. An institution, to fulfill its responsibilities, must progress,—not too slowly, not too fast. The rate of speed will depend in part upon the material resources of the institution, but chiefly upon the personality of the superintendent, of the superior, and of the staff.

- (n) A generous amount of experimentation in institutional methods and programs is imperative to-day. All who are engaged in institutional work are agreed that, while we have learned many things and are carrying them out successfully, nevertheless there are many things that still remain undetermined. Before putting into operation a new plan, our best judgment must be brought to bear upon its advisability. But often the only way to find out whether the plan will really prove successful or not is to try it out in practice. For instance, it used to be thought that allowing children reasonable liberty in leaving the institutional grounds to go shopping and so forth, would result in many abuses. Actual experience and actual experiment have shown conclusively that such abuses do not occur. In carrying out new plans experimentally we need to steer a middle course between overtimidity and rashness.

(3) *Staff Meetings.* Our institutions that have the practice of regular and frequent staff meetings feel that such meetings contribute notably to better work. The following excerpts illustrate some of the plans in vogue:

Staff meetings are held once a week. Usually the entire staff attends. One feature that has led to success in the meetings is the superior's ability both to make helpful suggestions and to elicit suggestions from the staff. She encourages free discussion of problems on the part of the staff members and makes every effort to get from them concrete suggestions that will lead to the satisfactory solution of such problems. She is, furthermore, ever willing to give an actual trial to promising

new proposals. At the staff meetings, concrete problems of the institution itself are discussed. In addition, the superior and an assistant are attending social work courses at a nearby university, and the subject matter dealt with in these courses is frequently discussed at the staff meetings. The superior attends social work conferences and meetings frequently, and makes it a point to share all of her experiences and contacts with her staff, withholding nothing. (# 11)

Regular staff meetings are held monthly. In addition, special staff meetings are held, if, for instance, there be question of introducing some new development in the program, if there be in contemplation an adjustment in health, recreational or other methods, or if an epidemic threatens or other emergency arises. In the regular staff meetings, problems of discipline, routine administration, new plans, and so forth, are given full consideration and are discussed freely. Sometimes only the supervisory staff or the teaching staff is called together for a staff meeting. At other times, if the subject under discussion concerns both groups, the two groups meet jointly. (# 66)

Staff meetings are held weekly. Problems are presented to the staff by the superior. Opportunity is also given to the members of the staff themselves to present their own problems for discussion. Such problems may concern new plans under consideration, current practices in the institution, and so forth. (# 88)

The institution uses largely a combined conference and staff meeting plan. One evening each week the staff gathers. The superintendent gives a talk on some phase of general social work or of institutional program. During the discussion in connection with these conferences, current problems of the institution are threshed out, new projects are launched, and future improvements are planned for. The sisters have found these conferences and meetings very valuable to them in training the children and in understanding them. (# 71)

No hard and fast rule can be laid down regarding frequency of staff meetings. Better practice seems to incline toward weekly ones.

The foregoing excerpts contain some suggestions as to problems that can be profitably discussed at staff meetings. It is well to vary the program as much as possible, taking up, for instance, a

current problem one week, a case study of an individual child the next, a new plan the next, and so forth. Particular attention may be called to the value of continuous series of talks or discussions on various phases of child-caring. These can be in the form of round-tables with discussion led by the superintendent, the superior, some member of the staff, or an invited speaker. The chapters of a standard work on child care can, if desired, form the basis of discussion.

The success of the meeting naturally depends to no small extent upon the personality of the superintendent or superior who acts as chairman. The staff will freely take part in discussion if encouragement and time be given and if the members feel that their suggestions and counsel will really count, and that honest criticisms and differences of opinions will not be taken amiss. A staff meeting is and should be in its inner spirit a democratic affair.

It may be suggested that agenda be made out and distributed before staff meetings, as suggested previously regarding the meeting of the board of directors, and for the same purpose. It is a very simple matter to have copies run off in carbon or mimeo.

In addition to the staff meetings proper, it need hardly be emphasized that frequent individual conferences between the superintendent and superior, if the institution have both, between the superior and heads of departments, and between the heads of departments and members of the departmental staffs are essential to teamwork and efficiency. The following short illustrations speak for themselves.

In addition to holding staff meetings and to having frequent consultations with individual members of the staff, the superior makes it a point on or about the first of each month to have personal conferences regularly and systematically with each of the sisters in charge of the various departments. (# 55)

The superior keeps in constant touch with the sister in charge of the boys, with the one in charge of the girls, and with the school principal. Conferences are held almost daily. (# 67)

(4) *Staff Load.* Accurate data on the proportion of sisters to children were obtained for fifty of the institutions studied; on proportion of the whole staff, including both sisters and lay employees, to children, from thirty-seven of the institutions studied. A very wide range into ratio prevails.

The proportion of sisters to child population is as follows :

1	sister	to	4	children	in	1	institution(s)
1	"	to	5	"	in	4	"
1	"	to	6	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	7	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	8	"	in	3	"
1	"	to	9	"	in	7	"
1	"	to	10	"	in	5	"
1	"	to	11	"	in	7	"
1	"	to	12	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	13	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	14	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	15	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	16	"	in	3	"
1	"	to	17	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	18	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	22	"	in	2	"
1	"	to	25	"	in	2	"

In twelve of the institutions, the ratio is one sister to 4-8 children; in 19, one sister to 9-11 children; in 15, one sister to 12-18 children; in 4, one sister to 22-25 children. The average ratio for all fifty institutions is one sister to 11.7 children.

The proportion of the total staff, including religious and lay employees, to the total child population is as follows :

1	staff	member	to	3	children	in	1	institution
1	"	"	to	3.5	"	in	1	"
1	"	"	to	4	"	in	2	institutions
1	"	"	to	4.5	"	in	3	"
1	"	"	to	5	"	in	3	"
1	"	"	to	5.5	"	in	1	institution
1	"	"	to	6	"	in	7	institutions
1	"	"	to	7	"	in	2	"
1	"	"	to	8	"	in	5	"
1	"	"	to	9	"	in	8	"
1	"	"	to	10	"	in	1	institution
1	"	"	to	11	"	in	1	"
1	"	"	to	12	"	in	2	institutions

In 10 of the above 37 institutions, the ratio is one staff member to 3-5 children; in 23, one to 5.5-9 children; in 4, one to 10-12 children. The average ratio for the 37 is one staff member to 7.7 children.

The provision of a sufficient staff depends, of course, on the number of religious available from the motherhouse and on the institution's financial resources for the employment of lay assistants. The number of sisters can be proportionally less, if there be sufficient funds to cover salaries and wages for more lay employees. The proportion of religious to lay employees varies greatly. To give just two instances, one institution with 36 sisters has 5 lay employees, while another with 39 sisters has 64 lay employees.

The greater the number of trained religious on the supervisory and teaching staffs, the better. But in any case the institution's work suffers and the children are the losers, if the general religious and lay staff load is too great. We hesitate to recommend unconditionally any definite ratio. We feel, however, that a goal of one staff member to a maximum of four or five children can well be set up. More than one fourth of the 37 institutions for which data were available are already at or beyond this goal. We should recommend that every pressure be brought by the other institutions upon the respective ecclesiastical and religious authorities as well as upon the supporting public to enable them to attain such a goal in the near future.

b. *Staff Quarters.* Although the child is the primary consideration in the institution, the needs of the staff must also be kept in mind. Institutional work is a severe strain upon body and mind, no matter how enthusiastic and energetic the workers be. Our sisters and brothers working in child-caring homes do not desire luxuries. But reasonably comfortable living and dining quarters and an attractive community room are not luxuries. They contribute both to health and to efficiency.

We are all agreed that a certain measure of privacy is a need for adults. Where community regulations permit, a separate sleeping room for each staff member should, if possible, be provided in the interests of privacy and of general well-being. The following excerpt shows in part how one institution has attempted to care for its staff.

Nineteen of the twenty-five sisters on the staff have private rooms. The building does not, to the great regret of the superintendent, permit provision of private rooms for the remaining six members. These occupy a large room divided off into wallboard cubicles. Each room has its own color scheme,—blue, rose, etc. The sisters' community room is tiffanied in tan, light yellow, and green. Their dining room has an open fireplace and chimney mantel. Over the mantel is a large bas-relief work-carving made in the Tyrol and depicting Our Lord in the house of Martha and Mary. The dining room has window drapes, plants, and other decorations. (# 72)

Hotels and hospitals that are being built to-day usually provide a private both for each room. A few years ago this would have been looked upon as extravagant luxury. A few decades earlier even a single bathroom in a private dwelling would have been looked upon as an extravagant luxury. If we can anticipate future developments from present and past drifts, it would appear that, not many years hence, not only hospitals and hotels, but private homes and other dwelling places will have a private bath attached to each sleeping room. The private bath for each sleeping room will be as much taken for granted as is the present custom of at least one bathroom for each dwelling. It may perhaps smack a little of luxury to suggest that it would be well to provide each member of the staff not only with a small private room but also with a private bath. We consequently suggest this measure with some reserve and hesitation. We may, however, set down the suggestion as one at least deserving of serious consideration on the part of institutions that have in mind building anew or remodeling the living quarters of their staffs.

c. *Vacation and Time Off.* That allowance of vacation and time off should be granted lay workers in an institution is a general principle that no institution to-day seriously questions. Exactly how much vacation and free time should be granted is, however, a point on which certain differences of view arise. Probably a fair standard, in conformity with current industrial standards, would be the following: *at least two and preferably three weeks full vacation each year; at least one full day or two-half days free each week; at least a couple of hours off daily.*

Conditions differ very considerably in the various religious orders and congregations from whose membership our institutions are staffed. Such differences have of course to be taken into account in matters concerning vacations and free time. On the other hand, sisters and brothers are human. Their energy has its physical limit. They, like the rest of humanity, need opportunity for relaxation and recreation. Institutional work is trying on physical and mental resources. The Church herself has consistently advocated a reasonable amount of recreation and it has practiced what it preaches by setting aside Sundays and holydays for recreation as well as for worship. Incidentally, in former centuries the Church practically established also a two-week yearly vacation standard through the accumulation of holydays for one week around Christmas time and one week around Easter. In view of these considerations,—and other ones as obvious will suggest themselves,—we should recommend that, so far as local conditions and community regulations permit, the same standard as to vacation and free time be maintained for the religious staff of our institutions as is recommended for the lay staff.

It is fully realized that the attainment of this goal for all institutions and for all religious staffs must remain for many a day an ideal rather than a reality. Nevertheless, without waiting for the years to go by, at least some steps can be taken, as have been taken in many institutions, toward approximation to the ideal.

d. *Paid Employees.* That children in an institution should take some part in institutional chores is recognized by all as reasonable. But work that is beyond the strength of the children, or drudgery tasks that infringe seriously upon the children's free time, should, it is equally recognized, so far as possible be performed by paid employees.

It is a cardinal point of Catholic ethics that the laborer is worthy of his hire. This means, under our contemporary economic conditions, that we are obliged in conscience, in accordance with our Catholic principles, to pay at least a living wage to those whom we employ. A living wage is one sufficient to cover the cost of living.

It is generally agreed that in the average city of, say, one hundred thousand people, the cost of living for a single person amounts to at least \$75 a month, and for a family consisting of father,

mother, and three young children to about \$125 to \$150 per month. These incomes will ordinarily purchase such necessities of life as will maintain the individual or the family in good health. They will not provide luxuries. Where we in institutions employ lay help and at the same time provide board and lodging, moderate reductions for board and lodging from the above amounts may be made of course in all good conscience. Such reductions cannot in strict justice go beyond the amount required for board and lodging outside the institution, and cannot in decency go beyond the cost to the institution for the same. A preferable plan is to pay full wages, in conformity to cost of living and to just wage standards in the locality, and to charge a fixed sum for board and lodging. This plan better safeguards both the demands of justice and the employee's self-respect.

Where a grown boy or girl of the late teens remains over at an institution and gives full-time service to the institution, the boy or girl is ethically entitled to full wages. To employ such a boy or girl at the nominal wage of \$5.00 or \$10.00 a month over and above board and lodging cannot be reconciled with the principles of economic justice.

The above minimum wage standards are not the result of vague conjecture or guess work. They are based on numerous highly detailed studies of human requirements as to shelter, food, clothing, and so forth, and of current retail prices. They are, moreover, minimum standards only. It goes without saying that workers who have higher skill should ordinarily receive wages or salaries proportionally beyond the above minimums, where they devote full time,—five and one half or six days a week—to their tasks.

We who in institutions are doing a work of charity and depend on charity for the maintenance of the work have an urgent obligation of conscience to practise justice. Charity goes lame, if justice falls.

e. *Personnel of Staff.* (1) *Duties.* The duties of the respective departments and members thereof have been sufficiently dealt with, either implicitly or explicitly, in the various previous chapters of the present manual. The duties, however, of the superintendent or superior have not yet been touched upon and may here be outlined briefly.

The acting head of an institution has a many-sided task. Not

only is the institution a little world in itself, but this world has manifold relations to the great world outside its walls. It is the duty of the head of the institution :

- (a) To be, as outlined earlier in this chapter, the interpreter of the institution to the board of directors, and the interpreter of the directors' wishes and viewpoint to the institution;
- (b) To be the chief medium of contact, in many institutions, between the institution and staff on the one hand, and the bishop and diocese, the motherhouse, and the local community on the other;
- (c) To assign responsibilities to the members of the staff, to coach, train and supervise the staff in the execution of its responsibilities, and to see to the welfare of the staff;
- (d) To maintain as intimate touch as possible with the children and their parents or guardians;
- (e) To represent the institution at conferences and meetings and to be the medium of communication between the institution and outside agencies;
- (f) To keep in close touch with current developments in the field of institutional programs, methods and policies;
- (g) To plan and to carry through modifications looking toward improvement in the institution's own program, methods and policies; to have responsibility for the upkeep and the improvement of the institutional plant and equipment; to have supervision of the institution's finances, so far as this task is not undertaken by the board of directors;
- (h) To submit reports to the board as well as to ecclesiastical and civil authorities in accordance with local requirements.

Given the magnitude and complexity of the superintendent's or superior's task, it is obvious that he or she has to guard against becoming too much engrossed and entangled in details. Intimate acquaintanceship with the details of the institution's activities and affairs is of supreme importance. On the other hand, in the actual

carrying out of the detailed activities of the institution, responsibilities and duties need to be widely distributed in order that the superintendent or superior may be free to devote his or her energy and thought to the major problems.

The superintendent or superior should be relieved, so far as possible, of teaching, clerical and similar tasks. He or she should be assisted in the administrative or business office by a sufficient clerical force to look after correspondence, filing, accounts, and so forth. Even in relatively small institutions, there should be at least one stenographer and bookkeeper. In larger institutions, more than one will be needed. If correspondence be dictated and typed instead of being written by hand, an enormous amount of the superintendent's or superior's time is saved for other pressing tasks, and carbons of all correspondence can be kept and filed, as they should be.

(2) *Qualifications.* It is generally agreed that in the long run the success of the institution in its child-caring and child-training work *depends more upon the personality and the training of the staff* than upon any other single feature. An institution may be the showplace of the community, but unless the staff members be of a high order of fitness, it is a body without a soul. On the other hand, however important material plant and equipment be, splendid results can be gotten in child-training, notwithstanding the handicaps of very mediocre or sub-average material equipment, if the staff has more than average qualifications for its work.

No two lists of such qualifications will agree in detail, and no single list can hope to be exhaustive. We may tentatively, however, suggest the following one as covering the more outstanding qualifications required on the part of members of institutional staffs, particularly of those members of the staff who come into personal contact with the children in a supervisory, teaching or other capacity. For convenience's sake we shall divide the qualifications into religious and moral, intellectual, and physical.

(a) *Religious and Moral.* That a profound religious spirit is a basic requirement is a point that does not need discussion.

Among the moral qualifications, the most important single one is *unselfishness*,—unselfishness in outer conduct as well as unselfishness in inner motive. It is less a distinct virtue in itself than a quality of character that colors and moulds all of the relations and activ-

ities of a human being, as regards both God and fellow man. It is the key quality of character, being the embodiment in personality of the whole law of God and neighbor. It is a quality which the average child recognizes with almost infallible keenness. In no phase of personality does the dictum better hold: What you do and are speaks so loud I cannot hear what you say.

Next to a deeply religious and unselfish spirit, perhaps the most important qualification for members of institutional staffs is a genuine love for children, a love that begets a real joy in being with them and in doing for them. This love is closely akin to unselfishness itself.

These three qualifications—religious spirit, unselfishness, and love for children—we should rank first. Some other fundamental requirements are the following:

Humility,—a humility that impels us to respect and to show courtesy to the child, to talk with him rather than to talk down to him, to be kindly and courteous even when we must be firm in correction. Such humility will, for instance, keep us from talking about a child to adult acquaintance or stranger with the child present.

Justice,—a justice that is scrupulously impersonal and objective, and that never plays favorites.

Honesty,—an honesty that is always aboveboard, that hates anything smacking of espionage, and that is truthful to a fault.

Patience,—a patience that begets unbroken evenness of disposition, under whatsoever provocation.

Buoyancy,—a buoyancy that is ever hopeful, and is never discouraged, even where things go badly or worse.

A sense of humor, that carries over rough spots, that never wounds, and that lightens the humdrum of daily routine and association.

(b) *Intellectual*. On the intellectual side are required, on the one hand good general intelligence, and on the other training and education. General intelligence should include, among other things, common sense, good practical judgment, open-mindedness, balance,

and a sense of proportion that distinguishes between the important and the unimportant.

As for education and training, the requirements differ somewhat in accordance with specific duties within the institution. The head of the institution should have had the advantage of a college education and of professional training in general social work for children and particularly in the field of the child-caring home. The head of the institution needs a broad knowledge of and a personal experience in the field of social work and particularly in those phases of the field that are immediately pertinent to the child-caring institution. A perfectly equipped superintendent or superior would have to be a specialist in a score of social and natural sciences. The perfectly equipped superintendent or superior, therefore, does not exist. A good grasp, however, of the whole field is well within human possibilities.

As for the teaching staff, the general educational requirement for the country is that teachers in grades should have had a high school course, plus normal school training. Teachers in high school should have in addition a college degree. The requirements for the parochial and public elementary and high schools of the country hold good for those who teach in institutional schools.

Each member of the supervisory staff should have as a minimum, a good general knowledge of social work, particularly of child welfare work, and a rudimentary knowledge of principles and practices in religious education, character building, child health and hygiene, domestic science, and recreation.

(c) *Physical.* While good work is often done by staff members who do not enjoy the best of health, our institutional authorities are unanimously agreed that staff members who are seriously ailing and decrepit are ordinarily too gravely handicapped physically to perform the trying tasks that inevitably fall to the lot of institutional staff members.

The foregoing qualifications refer more particularly to staff members who are immediately charged with the care and the training of the children. Certain qualifications, however, are imperative even for the employees in domestic, farming and similar capacities. It is almost inevitable that such employees have some contact, either direct or indirect, with the children. They should consequently be

men and women of good character, and should be definitely known to be free from communicable diseases, such as active tuberculosis and the venereal diseases. In some of our Catholic institutions the very wise plan prevails of having the health of employees of the institution under the supervision of the medical staff.

Before passing to the subject of training for institutional work, it may be worth while to set down an aspiration voiced over and over again by institutional authorities during the course of the present Study. They feel deeply that the child-caring institution is no place to send those who have failed in hospital, school, or other work. Something more than "obedience and charity," as one superior expresses it, is necessary to get results. With love of God and neighbor should be coupled a knowledge and a training that beget an understanding of problems involved in institutional work. Religious orders are beset on all sides with demands from schools, hospitals, and other sources. It would be unfair to expect that motherhouses assign *all* their best sisters to child-caring homes. But our institutional authorities are unanimous in their conviction that institutional work demands at least as high requirements as are demanded in school or hospital work and that to the institutions should be assigned *an equitable proportion* of the *very best* brothers and sisters available. The task is in many respects even more difficult than that which confronts the teacher and the nurse. *In nobility, it is second to none.*

"The care of needy children is the noblest work undertaken by our religious orders. In no other field are we called on to assume the duties of Christ so completely. Our children need more than teachers and nurses: they look to us for everything in life. Truly may it be said that they are what we make them. With the saving of souls is bound up the training of minds, the development of character and the building of bodies. These children, who are peculiarly Christ's and 'our own', deserve our care more than the children of the rich or of the middle class. No true mother will deny to her own children the best she possesses, nor will the superior who truly appreciates the work fail to assign to her child-caring homes the ablest members of her community" (Sisters' Conference, N. C. C. C., Report of the Committee on Standards, 5-6).

A more detailed problem related to the foregoing is suggested in the following excerpt.

Too many and too frequent changes in the staff constitute a hindrance to the maintenance of high standards of child care. If sisters who are being transferred leave on the same day that their newly appointed successors arrive, it is impossible for the outgoing sisters to instruct the incoming ones in their respective tasks. This puts a heavy additional burden on the members of the staff who remain. (# 72)

(3) *Training.* A generation or two ago, it was often assumed that common sense and general intelligence were sufficient qualifications for entrance upon teaching and nursing careers. We now know that we were mistaken. We realize the need of professional preparation for both of these vocations. It is a very hopeful sign that we are realizing more and more clearly each year the necessity of similar professional preparation for institutional child-caring.

“Owing to the fact that our Catholic institutions are operated by religious communities, we do not have to face the same serious problems which confront the Boards of Trustees in the lay-managed institutions. There are no serious problems to be solved in respect to the turn-over or rapid change of membership in the staff, no serious problem of maintaining proper traditions of service, no serious problem of creating a community interest among staff members or a uniformity of discipline; neither is there a problem in the matter of recruiting new members to the staff with the necessary character qualifications. All of these problems occupy a great deal of the time and attention of lay executives at the head of children's institutions, but with Religious Communities in charge of our institutions, we are relatively free from these anxieties. We have in the very nature of religious life a community of interest and discipline.

“Furthermore in institutions with a lay staff there are of necessity personal interests outside the immediate interests of the work such as family interests, financial interests, recreation interests, etc., all of which militate against the idea of the institution being a home for the staff members. It is otherwise

with our religious communities. There is with them a concentration of all personal interests in the work of the institution and in consequence a homelike atmosphere is developed which on the testimony of those not of the faith, is unparalleled in other institutions. Furthermore, each religious has passed through a period of novitiate, which is a training school for the development of a sound and sturdy character, a school moreover which emphasizes those special virtues such as patience, self-sacrifice, and devotion to duty so necessary in dealing with the routine problems of child care. . . .

"It is only within recent years that social work has been recognized as a special vocation requiring definite training with schools having minimum standards for matriculation. . . .

"If minimum educational requirements and specialized training are necessary for our religious teachers and nurses, who will deny that our charitable institutions, dealing with equally serious and complicated problems require a properly trained personnel? It is fully recognized that nothing can ever substitute for the Love of Christ, and His Poor, but we are not here speaking of substitutes, but rather of amendments to make even more perfect the spirit of love and of service" (Alter, in *Cath. Char. Rev.*, Feb. 1927, xi, 59-61).

Beginnings have already been made in novitiates toward such special preparation for work in child-caring institutions. It is hoped that before many years have passed professional training for child-caring work will have become as much a matter of course as professional training is already a matter of course for the teaching and the nursing professions.

Courses preparing either directly or indirectly for institutional child-caring are given, for example, at the summer school of the Catholic University of America, at the National Catholic School of Social Service, at Fordham University, N. Y., and at Loyola University, Chicago. Good training courses or institutes or both are also given at the New York School of Social Work, and at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

The above list does not pretend to be a comprehensive one of available facilities. It will, no doubt, be rapidly added to within

the next decade. In all probability, professional courses training for institutional work will before the end of the present decade be almost as common as training schools for nurses and normal schools for teachers. To-day the drift is decidedly in that direction.

However, for our Catholic work, chief emphasis will in the long run have to be placed on professional training given in novitiates. Such training should cover at least two years after the completion of high school. The details of the curriculum must depend on local resources. It should, however, provide the candidates with an intelligent grasp of the whole field of child care, and with a much more detailed understanding of the various phases of the institutional field, such as are outlined briefly in the present manual.

It does not seem too much to ask and to expect that within a decade all religious who enter anew the institution field shall have had professional preparation therefor. For the immediate present, however, we desire urgently to recommend that some of the members of present staffs, if even only one or two, be granted, wherever at all possible, the opportunity of at least one year's release and preferably two years' release from active institutional duty, in order to take up professional study and preparation for institutional child-caring work in one or other of the available centers of training.

While we may and should hopefully look forward to the not far distant day when training for institutional work will be as universal as is training for teaching and nursing work, nevertheless we have to reckon with the very obvious fact that, for the present and for some years to come, the great majority of the members of our institutional staffs cannot be provided with a full one-year or two-year professional training course. Most of our institutions, realizing the need of training and at the same time realizing the practical difficulties in the way of getting it, for all members of their staffs, are endeavoring strenuously to provide a certain amount of schooling and training through less thorough means. The chief of these means are the following.

i. *Staff Meetings.* Some of the many ways in which staff meetings can be utilized for mutual training on the part of the members of the staff have already been touched upon in the previous section and need not be further elaborated.

ii. *Institutes and Lecture Courses.* Courses of informal talks

on institutional problems, given either at the institution or outside thereof, by the superintendent, superior, other members of the staff, or else speakers coming in from the outside have been found very useful in a number of institutions. The following may serve as illustrations.

The superintendent gives a talk each week on one or another phase of institutional care or on related aspects of child welfare and general social work. The sisters consider these conferences very valuable to them in their work of understanding and training the children. (# 71)

During the past year, the director has given a course of lectures on various phases of work with children, using as a textbook the Handbook for Institutions, issued by the Federal Children's Bureau. These lectures were felt by the sisters to be so helpful that, instead of the ten originally planned, fourteen were given. (# 88)

At the Ohio State Welfare Conference held at Dayton in October, 1929, a special three-day institute for the staffs of child-caring homes was given. The institute was attended by sisters from a great many of the institutions all over the State.

iii. *Conferences and Social Work Meetings and Conventions.*

A great many of our institutions make it a point to be well represented at the various local, state and national conferences, concerned either with social work in general or with child welfare and child-caring institutions in particular. Such conference meetings are of diverse types.

The two chief nation-wide gatherings are the annual meetings of the National Conference of Catholic Charities and of the National Conference of Social Work. Both Conferences have special sections on the child, and usually a certain number of papers are read or talks given upon the specific problems of child-caring institutions. In addition to the national meetings, a number of state and city conferences are held annually. At both the national and the local conferences, our sisters are usually well represented. A number of these meetings are held in connection with community chests and with city, county, or state welfare departments. In addition, there take place a number of annual meetings, national or regional,

of welfare organizations dealing with one or other phase of child welfare.

In some cases the expense involved in attendance at meetings is prohibitive, given the meager finances of so many of our institutions. On the other hand, many of our institutions consider that the expenditure is more than justified by the information gleaned from papers and floor discussions, by the stimulus gained from new suggestions as to method and policy, and, perhaps above all, by the helpful interchanges of experience gotten through personal contact, outside the meeting halls, with other workers engaged in institutional tasks. Such advantages have been particularly in evidence from attendance at the annual meetings of the National Conference of Catholic Charities.

In some dioceses and cities, diocesan or citywide conferences are held at stated intervals during the year, exclusively for sisters engaged in Catholic institutions (e.g., # 11, # 42, # 67, # 72). At these conferences are discussed particular problems or cases concerning the institutional field. One of the difficulties that sometimes arises in connection therewith is that discussion on the part of the sisters attending may be meager. This may be due to many causes. One or two of them are suggested in the following excerpts:

During the study of one institution, the visitor making the study suggested that the social worker from the local placing agency might profit a good deal by attending the institution's staff conferences. The sister superior seemed rather surprised at the suggestion, remarking that the social worker usually came to meetings of the kind, not to learn, but to tell the sisters what to do. Formerly the chairman of the meetings was a physician. Later the policy of asking one of the sisters to act as chairman was adopted. This led to a good deal more freedom of discussion. (# 91)

Where the citywide or diocesan meeting has been tried, the results have been on the whole good, although it is generally felt that more and freer discussion on the part of those attending would be desirable. Such free discussion is ordinarily better attained where all the sisters attending belong to the same religious community. On the other hand, where membership is confined to one community,

the stimulus that comes from interchange of ideas and from association with the wider group is apt to be a little less. Probably all things considered, the better plan is the combination one, under which, each year some of the meetings are diocesan or citywide, and some confined to members from different institutions but from the same religious community.

iv. *Visits.* It is universally recognized that where opportunity offers for staff members to visit other institutions, it is well to take advantage of such opportunity.

The sisters are encouraged to visit, where possible, other child-caring institutions, Catholic and non-Catholic. These visits are not only enjoyable as a break in routine, but are very valuable practically, as visitors usually pick up suggestions that they can use in their own institution. It may be added incidentally that the sisters in charge of the domestic department usually attend the annual local Food Show and the annual Household Exposition held in the large local civic auditorium. (# 72)

Visits to other institutions are made to compare notes and to gain new and better ideas. Such visits make for progress and against stagnation. (# 201)

v. *Literature.* While, generally speaking, personal contact through institutes, lecture courses, conferences, meetings, visits, and so forth, is the most desirable as a means of interchanging experience and of keeping abreast of current developments, on the other hand even where such opportunities in the way of personal contact are limited, much can be gotten out of the current literature in the field of general social work, of child welfare, and of institutional problems.

In a number of our institutions, the superintendents have excellent libraries covering the literature of social work. The books and periodicals therein are at the disposal of the members of the staff. It is much better, however, that the members of the staff have their own library, either in the community room or easily reached therefrom. Ordinarily we do not go far afield to find books. It, however, the books and periodicals are where we must inevitably have them under our direct vision, we are much more apt

to make practical use of them. It is not necessary that each institution have an elaborate library on social work and child welfare or that it subscribe to all the periodicals in the field. On the other hand, it is agreed that the staff library should contain a good selected collection of books and pamphlets on child care, and that on the reading table of the staff library or community room should be found the current issues of some of the chief periodicals dealing with the child and with the problems of the child-caring home.

The bibliography that is appended to the present manual may serve as a suggestion toward a selection of the books that are most useful to the institutional staff. The most important books of reference for the staff library are double-starred. Those of somewhat less importance are single-starred.

A number of governmental and private agencies, national and local, publish series of books and pamphlets that are of the greatest practical value for the child-caring home. Most of this literature is obtainable gratis upon request, or else at a negligible cost. In some cases, the institution will be put upon the mailing list of the agency on request, and all current and future publications will be sent without cost. We may particularly recommend the book and pamphlet publications of the following agencies: U. S. Children's Bureau; Bureau of Home Economics of Federal Department of Agriculture; U. S. Bureau of Education; state welfare boards and departments; Commonwealth Fund; Child Welfare League of America; the National Child Health Association; American Social Hygiene Association; Welfare Division of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

The library should also contain as two basic sources: the files of the Proceedings of the National Conference of Catholic Charities and of the Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work.

As for periodicals, the number subscribed to will depend to no small extent upon the financial resources of the institution. So many practical suggestions, however, can be gotten from good periodical literature that the cost of subscription to such periodicals is relatively negligible. We should recommend that each institution subscribe to about a dozen periodicals dealing with social work and child welfare. The following are suggested: Catholic Charities Review, The Survey, Bulletin of the Child Welfare League of America,

Recreation (formerly Playground and Recreation), Hygeia, Journal of Religious Instruction, Journal of American Home Economics, Mental Hygiene and Mental Hygiene Bulletin, School Arts Magazine, Catholic Educational Review, Catholic School Interests. Of these eleven, we should recommend particularly and in order of importance for the institution, the first six. The subscription prices for these magazines are given in the bibliography at the end of the manual.

The Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York publishes monthly a small mimeographed bulletin entitled "Our Children". Each number contains cameo articles on points of practical program and administration, and also current news items of the various institutions. Perhaps in other dioceses it may be possible through a cooperative arrangement among the institutions, acting independently or through the local diocesan charities office, to get out a similar medium for the exchange of ideas, of experiences, and of suggestions. The cost is a minimum one. The advantages are obvious.

C. FINANCES

It would be very nice if institutions could be conducted without finances. But bills cannot be paid with prayers. The financial problem is one that presses hard upon practically all our institutions. It becomes particularly embarrassing when, as is so often the case, the superintendent, superior, and staff have to devote a large proportion of their time to gathering sufficient funds to make both ends meet. Few enterprises in life are entirely free from economic anxieties. But our institutional staffs have their hands full meeting the complex tasks of daily administration and régime. These tasks are large and numerous enough to occupy the whole time, energy, and thought of the staff. So far as possible, staffs should be relieved of the responsibility of collecting funds for maintenance and upkeep. As one superior very tersely and simply expressed it in the course of the present study: "With all the other work of the institution devolving upon the staff, the responsibility of raising money should not be put upon them". The drawbacks incident to the older and, in many instances, still prevalent system, and the advantages accruing from newer methods are summed up in the following excerpt:

The present method of financing, under which the greater part of the necessary funds comes from diocesan support and from the local community chest, has been found to be most satisfactory. Under this method, a definite budget can be fixed. The sisters years ago used to go out and collect money and provisions, thus leaving the institution in the care of a few for weeks at a time. They never knew how much of either they would bring back or how far under-provisioned or over-provisioned they would be as regards some kinds of food. The definiteness and certainty of the present financial arrangement do away with the difficulties of the old methods, give strict continuity of care and of training for the children, allow better for the development of a progressive program, and leave the sisters free to do the work for which they have been trained instead of putting upon them the burden of soliciting funds. (# 88)

In the present section we shall deal: first, with sources of income; secondly, with purchasing and budgeting plans; thirdly, with financial records and reports.

I. SOURCES OF INCOME

The sources of income differ widely from state to state and from institution to institution. Generally speaking, the chief sources of income for most of our institutions are: diocesan funds, community chest funds, and board payments. In addition to these major sources, a number of institutions rely to a greater or lesser extent upon the income received from sources such as the following: rental, sales, and interest on endowment funds; donations and legacies; subscriptions and annual appeals; picnics, balls, and entertainments; auxiliaries, other interested lay organizations and individuals.

a. *Diocesan Funds.* Diocesan funds are gathered and distributed in various ways. In some institutions (e.g., # 6, # 11, # 19, # 20, # 25), the income is from collections taken up in the diocese on some appointed Sunday, or regularly on Christmas or Easter or both. In one institution at least (# 88), diocesan support is obtained by assessing each parish five per cent of its total ordinary expenses, this amount being collected through the chancery and turned over to the Catholic Charities Bureau, which in turn

disburses a definite share of the amount collected to the institutions. So far as the annual or stated diocesan collections are concerned, in a number of instances the amount received through this plan is notoriously inadequate to meet any large proportion of the expenses of the institutions that are the beneficiaries. The per cent assessment appears to provide more adequate income both for institutions and for other Catholic charities. As a result of these and of other conditions,

“ There is a growing feeling among leaders in Catholic charities that the only alternative to chest participation for Catholics is a financial federation of Catholic agencies. In Buffalo and Toronto there are complete financial federations of all the Catholic charities of these two dioceses. All the operating expenses of the Catholic charitable institutions and organizations in these dioceses are raised in one annual appeal. Providence also has the equivalent of a Catholic federation. The Archdioceses of New York and Chicago conduct annual campaigns to raise the funds necessary for certain of their more important social and charitable activities” (O’Grady, *Introduction to Social Work*, 383).

b. *Community Chests.* A very large number of our institutions receive relatively generous contributions, ranging from 14% to 60% of total incomes, from the local community chests. Thirty-nine of the institutions studied so participate in community chest funds.

The pros and cons of such participation have been very impartially summed up by Doctor John O’Grady, (l. c., 377-83). Both Catholic and non-Catholic views on the advantages and disadvantages of community chests differ widely. It is not our function to enter here into this highly important but controversial issue. The Catholic institutions that participate in community chest funds, are, so far as we have been able to judge from the present study, practically unanimous in voicing their approval of the plan as it has worked up to date. Regardless of what the ultimate effects of the community chest movement may be,—and the sky is by no means cloudless,—the chest has very appreciably augmented the income of the institutions concerned, and has enabled them to introduce many

important improvements which otherwise could not, for want of funds, have been brought about.

Owing to participation in the community chest, some limitations have been placed upon other and previous methods of adding to income, but this financial loss has been relatively inconsiderable. So far as the present study has been able to determine, there has been no appreciable falling-off in legacies and donations. Such legacies and donations have constituted, with rare exceptions, only a very small proportion of institutional income.

A special financial problem arises where an institution which is aided by the community chest receives children from the entire diocese. The community chest of the city in which the institution is located should contribute toward the care of all children from this city. Where there are several community chest cities in a diocese, each chest should pay toward the care of the children of its own city, even though the diocesan institution is located elsewhere. Sometimes this is not done. To meet this problem, it may be desirable to organize and, if need be, incorporate local Catholic child-caring societies, which can make direct appeal to their respective community chests for funds to care for the local Catholic dependent children resident in the diocesan institution. (# 88)

c. *Board.* Parental, and state, county or city payments for board range in the institutions studied all the way from 13% to 61% of total income. The subject of board payments has been dealt with elsewhere in some detail and need not be treated here at length.

Sometimes parents of limited means are unable to meet the board and tuition rates of our Catholic boarding academies, but may have good reasons for sending their children to a boarding school. The admission of such children to child-caring homes at full board may help to wipe out the sharp distinction which now exists between boarding schools and children's homes. Both are, in a sense, child-caring *and* boarding homes, the major difference being the amount of subsidy received from the Catholic public. (# 88)

d. *Miscellaneous Sources of Income.*—In only one or two of the institutions studied did income from *endowment* or *rentals* con-

stitute a major proportion of total funds received for maintenance. In several, a greater or less amount of money is obtained through the circulation of a *magazine*, through the sale of *farm products*, or through proceeds of *stores, printing establishments, florist business*, and so forth, conducted in connection with or as an integral part of the institutional administration. *Donations* in some instances constitute as much as twenty per cent of the total income, but ordinarily are considerably below this sum. *Legacies* are, generally speaking, few and small.

Three of the institutions studied derive a considerable income from an *annual Christmas appeal* made either to a limited group of friends of the institution or else to a wider public. *Annual balls or picnics* are found to net a few institutions very appreciable sums. The following illustrates both the financial and other advantages that can be derived from well-conducted events of the kind:

Once a year a general picnic on the institution grounds nets from ten to thirteen thousand dollars. Open house is kept all day. Usually a good number of the alumni come. The people throughout the diocese take part, and so become better acquainted with and interested in the home. The picnic has many of the features of a church fair. Admission is charged. Food and other things are sold. A special committee consisting of men and women actively interested in the institution handles all the details of the picnic. Each member of the committee is given a typed outline of his or her duties so that everything will proceed smoothly and in business order. (# 72)

A considerable number of institutions derive both financial and other advantages from the active cooperation of *auxiliaries* or of *independent outside societies and organizations*. Some illustrations follow.

An auxiliary board of seventy-five women conducts card parties and bazaars. (# 7)

Various charitable organizations and social clubs of the community help to purchase equipment. (# 10)

The Ladies Aid, with about three hundred members, holds benefit events, and also turns over dues received, which are

twenty-five cents a month for each member. The Knights of Columbus have contributed toward the library. (# 18)

Two organizations known as the Lay Community of the Ladies of Charity, Seniors and Juniors, take part in supplying linen equipment. The members also come to the institution to sew. (# 22)

At Christmas time, each member of a group of ladies gives one or two of the children a box containing candy, ties, and articles serving practical needs. The Sewing Society with about fifteen members comes to the institution every week to sew. Individual friends supply candy, clothing and other articles in considerable quantity. (# 50)

The institution is owned by and derives its chief support from the Benevolent Society with 1,500 members and annual dues. The local Catholic Ladies' Club has a list of the names and birthdays of the children, and sends each child a gift on its birthday. (# 83)

The Guild of Catholic Women, connected with the institution, raises money to meet various needs, and at present is undertaking to gather funds for a new building. (# 87)

The Auxiliary connected with the institution has been of remarkable help to the sisters. It started in 1918 with twelve women as members. It now numbers about a thousand members. It has its elected officers,—President, Vice-President, Secretary, and Treasurer, and six directors. It also has a medical board consisting of three physicians, one visiting nurse, and one psychologist, together with an advisory board of five members. The purposes of the auxiliary are: first, to furnish financial aid; secondly, to help towards higher standards of service in all departments. Revenue is raised through membership dues,—active, associate, and life,—and through an annual lawn fête. The latter, however, was abandoned after the institution entered the community chest. Each year the Auxiliary has accomplished certain definite projects, such as paying off assessments, expanding the educational, health, and recreational programs. Regular meetings of the Auxiliary are held once a month. Every year on July 19th the members receive corporate Communion at the institution, after which breakfast is served them by the sisters. (# 81)

Very few of our institutions can or do rely upon auxiliaries or similar organizations to cover any large part of their current expenses. Moreover, the financial activities of auxiliaries are usually quite closely limited where the institution itself is a member of the local community chest. Nevertheless, that such auxiliaries and guilds can be important factors in helping to meet financial obligations is amply evident from the success attained in this field by so many of them.

Furthermore, such auxiliaries and guilds make and multiply friends for the institution, friends who are personally and actively interested in its welfare and program. This is perhaps particularly important in view of the trend in our institutions toward deriving their major income through indirect and more or less impersonal means, namely, through diocesan and community chest funds. Ordinarily the contributors to such diocesan and community funds have no direct personal contact with the institutions that are the beneficiaries thereof. Such contributors have only an impersonal and indirect relationship. There is danger lest zeal and generosity wane in proportion as contributions become more indirect and impersonal. There is then all the more reason for encouraging any type of giving,—whether through associated guilds and auxiliaries or through entertainments and picnics held on the grounds,—which brings the givers into personal touch with the work that is being done. As faith cometh by hearing, so charity cometh largely by seeing. What is out of sight tends in the long run to be out of mind, notwithstanding impassioned appeals from the pulpit and high-power salesmanship methods of the community chest plan.

Some other and kindred factors that make for continued personal and financial support on the part of the community are suggested in the following excerpt.

The success of the superintendent in raising funds for the institution is in part at least attributable to the following factors. He is interested in everyone in the community. He makes it his business to know everyone. He takes deep interest in all civic affairs and a special interest in everything concerning the welfare of the city's children. The playgrounds of the home are open to the children of the city, and the home itself is as much a community center as a child-caring center.

He brings home to the people of the city that the children at the home are entitled to the best that can be given them. He feels that, when a child enters the home, the Church takes the parents' place and assumes responsibility, and hence must give the child every physical, educational, moral and spiritual advantage. He has built up a real community pride in the home, both by what he has done for the children and by what he has done for the community itself. (# 27)

2. PURCHASING AND BUDGETING

Where there are two or more institutions in a given city, joint purchasing can contribute very much towards reducing expenditures. In one of the institutions studied the following plan has brought about a considerable saving.

The institution does all its buying through the local Hospital Council, thus securing the advantages of large-scale buying. The Council purchases supplies for all the institutions in the city, the institutions themselves purchasing through the Council. This method eliminates the middleman's profits, actually saving about ten per cent on its total purchases. (# 66)

Generally speaking, large-scale purchasing is of course, considerably more economical than small-scale purchasing. Ample storage space such as can be provided through the root cellar described in the chapter on Plant and Equipment makes large-scale buying more feasible.

The only retail buying is that done in emergencies or for the purpose of training the children in the value and use of money. Wholesale buying is done *in the locality in which the institution is situated*. This promotes good feeling toward and active cooperation with the home among the local business people. (# 201)

Responsibility for buying is distributed between the superintendent and the sister superior. The superintendent is responsible for buying goods in large quantities, such as, for instance, flour, cereals, canned goods, potatoes, and important additions to physical equipment. Flour and potatoes are bought by the carload. The superior purchases perishable

food stuffs, clothing and shoes, school supplies, and minor articles of physical equipment. (# 68)

The superintendent does all the buying for the institution. He does the marketing every Saturday at the commission houses and markets. This helps him incidentally to secure a great variety of foods. All goods are bought at wholesale or from jobbers at reduced rates, and a considerable saving results from this procedure. (# 72)

A budget system, if not too rigorous, helps appreciably towards apportioning income wisely and towards efficiency and economy in purchasing.

The institution is operated on a regular budget which is approved by the board of managers. A certain portion is allotted to the superior on a monthly basis. (# 68)

In one of the privately conducted non-Catholic institutions visited during the course of the present Study, a still more detailed budget plan is in operation and has worked splendidly. Each cottage is budgeted and the house mother must live within her budget. An account is kept of her expenditures and sent to her each month. Moreover, for training purposes, each child is budgeted and knows exactly how much is being spent for her clothing, as an account is sent to her each month. The child herself does not handle this money personally, but is always with her house mother when her clothing is bought and knows exactly how much she is allowed to spend. The house mother's petty cash allowance of ten dollars a week is used for small things needed by the children such as stockings, garters, and so forth. When a child goes to the village to buy these things, each item purchased is charged up to her own account. (Carson College)

3. FINANCIAL ACCOUNTS AND REPORTS

It need hardly be emphasized that the financial records of the institution should be kept with the utmost accuracy. The exact plan or system of bookkeeping used will depend upon local needs and conditions. The books should be so kept that the determination of per capita costs as well as the costs of the main items of expenditures can be easily and clearly determined.

The books in some institutions are audited monthly (e.g., # 14, # 55); in others, quarterly, (e.g., # 62); in others, semi-annually or annually (e.g., # 88, # 72). The auditing is best done by a certified public accountant. In some communities and states, auditing is required, and is made by the local community chest or the state board. The institution owes it to itself to have thorough auditing carried out by responsible outside accountants or other parties. The cost is relatively slight.

An annual financial statement is part of universally recognized procedure. Where money has been received from diocesan funds or from the community chest, a detailed statement should naturally be sent to them. In many instances such statements,—monthly, quarterly, or annual,—are required. It is also well that copies of the annual financial statement be sent, so far as possible, to all individuals or groups who have contributed to the support of the institution. For this purpose, it is well to keep always at hand a list of the names and addresses of all contributors to or other friends of the institution. Sending such a financial statement to individual contributors is more than a courtesy. It is an indication to them of the manner in which their contributions have been spent and a stimulus toward willing renewal of their contributions. If, together with the financial report, is sent also a short readable illustrated account of what has been accomplished by the institution during the preceding year, continued support, friendship and interest are better assured.

REFERENCES

An excellent general survey of whole field of administration and financial reporting is available in: *Handbook for institutions*, pub. no. 170, U. S. Children's bureau, 1927, 9-14, 116-17, with bibliographies, 122, 129.

Literature on boards of directors is meager in quantity, though good in quality. Among the best sources are: H. H. Hart, *The job of being a trustee*; C. S. Richardson, *Round table plan for trustees of institutions for dependent children*; A. Wilcox, *The board member—what is he? what are his responsibilities? how can he be made efficient?*; *Trustees have and are problems*, in *Information exchange*, Child welfare league of America; M. Russell, "A board of directors: its functioning and relationships," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Sept. 1926, x, 243-46; A. J. Muste, *The problem of labor representation on the board of the family society*.

For very detailed and highly suggestive treatment of the duties of superintendents, supervisory staff members, and institutional social workers, see: M. Williamson, *The social worker engaged in the care and protection of children*, vol. 3,

Job analysis series, Amer. assoc. of social workers, to be published in near future. An excellent short analysis of qualifications and duties of supervisors and cottage mothers may be found in: L. W. Goldrich, *Manual for cottage mothers and supervisors*, 8-13.

A forceful and convincing presentation of the need of professional training for institutional staff members is made by: K. J. Alter, "Special training for religious in children's institutions," in *Cath. char. rev.*, Feb. 1927, xi, 59-61.

For valuable suggestions on methods of bookkeeping for institutions, see: *Plan of financial accounting*, prepared by Child welfare league of America,—sample forms with 7 double pages of detailed instructions for use thereof. Attention may also be called to the Child welfare league's mimeo publication: *Population reporting for children's institutions and child-caring agencies*,—with forms and instructions for use. The best detailed study and description of business procedures and accounting for children's institutions is L. B. Job, *Business management of institutional homes for children*.

CHAPTER XII

PLANT AND EQUIPMENT

Introduction. No elaborate or exhaustive study of the complex problems of plant and equipment will be made in the present chapter. The solution of such problems is largely a local matter, dependent upon local needs, conditions, resources, and limitations. Furthermore, we feel that, while physical plant and equipment deserve serious attention, too much space or preoccupation given thereto may throw into the background the weightier things of program and policies.

The basic principles and considerations that need to be held in mind when planning new institutions or when remodeling old ones have been excellently formulated in the easily accessible Handbook for Institutions, publ. no. 170, U. S. Children's Bureau, ch. iii-iv, 15-36. Institutions that are thinking of building anew or of remodeling and improving their present plant and equipment are advised urgently to consult this excellent source for guidance as to general principles and considerations.

It is still more important that such institutions make choice of the *very best architect* available. It is poor economy, in fact it is a serious extravagance, to employ any but the best architect. While plans for new buildings or for the remodeling of old ones are in course of preparation, close and continuous contact and consultation between the architect and the institutional authorities are imperative. A competent architect is in a position to make invaluable suggestions to the institutional authorities. They are in a position to make clear to the architect the special needs that must be provided for in the child-caring home.

Institutions that have in mind the erection of a new plant or the remodeling of their present one are urgently counseled to visit beforehand as many good child-caring homes as possible. The expenditure of time, energy and money for this purpose will be more than amply repaid. The National Conference of Catholic Charities

will at all times very gladly offer suggestions as to the best institutions, Catholic and non-Catholic, to visit for such purpose of investigation and observation. Visits to hotels, clubs, colleges and boarding schools are also decidedly worth while.

One urgent recommendation may be made in passing. The best quality in building material and in equipment is usually the cheapest in the long run. By best quality is meant, not the most luxurious, but the most substantial. Plant and equipment should of course be as artistic as they can be made. Beauty, however, is primarily dependent, not upon the rareness or the expensiveness of the material used, but upon design and proportion. A brick construction, for example, can easily be more artistic than expensive stone. Marble is not necessarily beautiful, however costly it may be.

A good many matters concerning plant and equipment are dealt with incidentally in other chapters: e.g., grounds and summer camps in the chapter on Recreation; receiving department, dispensary and infirmary in the chapter on Medical Care; administration offices in the chapter on Administration and Finance. In the following pages, attention will be given chiefly to the problems of location, of buildings and furnishings, and of general service. No hard and fast line can be drawn between buildings and equipment on the one hand and general service on the other. The two fields overlap at many points. The division is adopted, not as a rigidly logical one, but as providing a convenient framework for the chapter.

A. LOCATION

There are three chief choices of location: urban, suburban and rural. Each has its advantages and its disadvantages.

In favor of the urban location may be urged the following advantages. An institution located in a city, particularly if near to or immediately adjoining a good hospital, has a very important advantage in its health service. Usually, it is conveniently located to numerous community resources in the way of family and child agencies, clinics, and other physical and mental health agencies. It is in a better position to take advantage of outside elementary, secondary, and vocational school facilities. Parents, relatives, and guardians can more easily visit the children. The children can as a rule more readily multiply their outside community contacts, through

visiting, shopping, and so forth, as dealt with in the chapter on Discipline. Transportation is facilitated. The institution is closer to stores and supply houses. The matter of drayage is often simplified. The problems of water supply, lighting, sewage disposal, and fire protection are commonly made easier.

Rural institutions, those built in the open country, can, on the other hand, more economically acquire large grounds, with wooded tracts and brooks, and with land for gardens and farm. These are extremely important considerations.

Many institutions prefer a suburban location as combining a good many of the best features of the urban and of the rural locations. Others feel that a very satisfactory compromise is reached by having the major plant located in the city, with a home or camp in the country for use during part or all of the summer season.

A location in or near a village or small town obviously has a good many advantages of summer and open country locations, but is apt to lack the hospital, social agency, and economic conveniences of the strictly urban location.

All things considered, the urban or suburban location or else urban winter quarters with rural summer quarters seem better for the majority of institutions. However, local conditions and needs so differ than it is impossible to lay down anything like an iron rule.

A site on a hilltop is apt to be pleasing to the eye. But very commonly it has grave disadvantages. Drayage expenses are increased. Still more important, however, is the fact that hill slopes are poorly adapted to most recreational needs. In a choice between a hilltop site and one on a fairly level plain or ridge, the latter is usually more desirable.

It is proverbially bad policy to look a gift horse in the mouth. But donations of land as building sites for institutions should be scrutinized closely before being accepted. The saving of a few thousand dollars through acceptance may mean the later loss of many thousands, and, still more, may, if the location be unsuitable, gravely cripple the institution's work for its children.

B. BUILDINGS AND FURNISHINGS

Habitations serve primarily the needs for food and shelter. The space and equipment necessary to care for these two needs are a first consideration.

I. KITCHEN

If the institution is cottage plan, each cottage having its own separate kitchen, the ideal kitchen is one that approximates as nearly as possible the type found in the family home. Where, however, the plan calls for a large central kitchen, many other factors have to be taken into account.

There are certain features common to many of our institutional kitchens: the floors are generally of terrazzo, of tile, or of some composition easily cleaned; the walls are painted a light, restful shade; provision is made for as much sunshine, light and air as possible. A couple of the institutions (# 14, # 88) have skylights on the side of the room where there are no windows. To carry off all odors of cooking, there are various types of ventilators and electric fans. One institution (# 72) has an electric ventilating and exhaust fan in the attic, connected with the range hood in the kitchen. This fan blows out over the roof all smoke, steam, and fumes.

Much time and effort are saved if the rooms used for the preparation and serving of food are well arranged and are amply equipped with up-to-date labor-saving devices. The following excerpts illustrate some good features in arrangement.

The range is about fifteen feet long and is operated by oil fanned by water. The steam table is back of the range and of exactly the same length as the range. Both occupy the center of the floor. Such placement allows two or three persons sufficient work space. The cereal cooker, soup tanks, and potato steamer are heated by electricity and placed conveniently against the wall. The coffee and hot-water urns are at the opposite wall, so that the assistant responsible for serving beverages is not in the way of the other workers. The dumb waiter at the right wall carries the food to the second-floor diet-kitchens which are equipped with steam tables. This arrangement avoids confusion and permits the five dining rooms to be taken care of with ease. (# 81)

The large kitchen is divided into four parts by seven steel tables so placed as to leave a passageway through the center, leading to the boys' dining room on one side and to the girls' dining room on the other. These seven tables are each twelve-and-a-half feet long, three feet wide, and two-and-a-half feet

high. They are two-thirds enclosed, with sliding doors, for pots, kettles and pans. Three tables are equipped one-third part with gas burners for hot cakes. Four of them have regular gas stoves at one end, and underneath these end sections are shelves where dishes may be kept hot. The tables do not touch the floor, but are supported on polished steel balls, so that the floor under them can be cleaned properly and so that no vermin can reach the closed compartments. (# 14)

There is a very convenient and complete gas range. A set of capacious cupboards lines one wall of the kitchen. Under these are tables with drawers and cupboards, so that utensils and materials frequently used, such as flour, sugar, etc., are within easy reach. Along another side is a sink for the washing of pots, pans, and kettles. There are also movable tables made of highly polished boards placed on trestles. (# 72)

Gas seems to be the fuel most commonly used for ranges. Many institutions supplement this with coal and electric ranges. Some few use oil. Nearly all have large urns for beverages.

a. *Labor-saving Devices.* That these are extremely important is the uniform opinion of all sisters in charge of the kitchen. With changing conditions, children do not now ordinarily help, except in minor measure, in preparing food, and with the scarcity of lay helpers the burden as a rule falls on the sisters alone. Thanks to labor-saving devices, their work is enormously lightened and energy is released for other tasks. Some institutions have a very full equipment, while others have only one or two of the appliances, such as the can-opener and the breadcutter. Aside from these two may be mentioned mixers, peelers, meat cutters, soup tanks, steam boilers, meat broilers, cereal cookers, toasters, warmers, polishers for both utensils and floors, and dryers.

The mixer is the premier labor-saver, according to those who have had experience with many devices. A type used in one institution (# 71) has an attachment for almost everything, from coffee grinder to vegetable slicers, and includes a cake mixer, ice cream mixer, egg beater, mayonnaise mixer, and meat grinder. For further convenience there are three speeds, regulated by a switch at one side. Vegetable peelers run by electricity rank next in popularity. A few of the institutions have toasters with tops that may be

used for cooking griddle cakes. One institution (# 81) has found an electric fruit squeezer to be of value. Another (# 66) has an arrangement for cooking meat under thirty pounds pressure which makes the meat very tender. All of these devices are found most helpful for the sisters. Those who are fortunate enough to have them state that they would not give up any of them. Some say they do not know how they ever got along without them. Those in charge of kitchens incompletely equipped with labor-saving devices are anxious to get the appliances that are lacking.

b. *Pantries and Store Rooms.* It is important that pantries be located conveniently near the kitchen. They should be roomy and should have outside ventilation. The following excerpt illustrates good arrangement.

The "provision room" located off the hall leading to the kitchen has a concrete floor and two good-sized windows. There are many shelves for canned goods, cupboards with doors for dry groceries, and a platform on rollers with galvanized covered cans for such supplies as beans, rice, sugar, macaroni, cocoa, and so forth. (# 88)

Some institutions have also found it convenient to have a bread room where the bread may be sliced shortly before the meal is ready to be served. The sliced bread is kept in metal-lined drawers to prevent drying out.

Usually there is a large store room in the basement or in a separate building for the supplies in bulk that are kept on hand.

The institution's storage facilities have been greatly increased through the building of a root cellar, about 100 x 30 feet, on the grounds not far from the kitchen. The plan was adapted from plans furnished by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and by a local State University. Without any artificial refrigeration, an even temperature of 40° F. can be maintained in the cellar all the year round. The cellar is entirely underground and has ample facilities for storing large supplies of fruits and vegetables. This cellar makes possible the economies incident to purchase in large quantities, while at the same time it obviates the monotony in diet that often otherwise would be the sequel of large-quantity purchases of perishable fruits and vegetables. (# 68)

One large room used as a vegetable cellar is equipped with bins and shelves for the storage of products for winter use. All the steam pipes are thoroughly insulated. In the aisles are two electric lights, on a trolley, that can be wheeled along; thus it is not necessary to have many lights burning when only one end of the room is in use. The room is kept cool and dark to prevent vegetables from sprouting. (# 72)

c. *Refrigeration.* The importance of refrigeration is everywhere recognized. Nearly every institution has its own ice plant. A good many use the ammonia process, while an equal number use the newer electric refrigeration. The recent installation of a frigidaire system has resulted in a very marked saving of food and ice (# 64). All institutions agree, no matter whether ammonia or electric process be used, that there should be separate compartments for different kinds of food. A few refrigeration systems have ice-cream freezers attached, while the electric machines have compartments for all kinds of frozen desserts.

The greatest difference in refrigeration noted from institution to institution is in size of plant. It is only natural that institutions which have to store large quantities of food over a considerable length of time should need larger refrigeration facilities than those situated in cities where perishable foods can be purchased daily. Some institutions keep a greater amount of food on hand than do others. For instance, one large home (# 14) has a corridor containing six refrigerators,—two for storing large quantities of food used during the month, and four for storing daily food supplies,—each with its separate compartments for milk and meat. Another (# 81) has only three refrigerators, one of which is in the kitchen itself and is used for the storing of foods from previous meals. Incidentally, many appetizing dishes are made from these leftovers.

d. *Bakeries.* Some institutions buy their bread from city bakeries, making their own cakes, pies and hot rolls in their own kitchens. In such large orders, however, as are generally given, the bakeries sometimes send stale bread. One institution (# 80) solved this problem by ordering specially baked hotel-size loaves. Day-old bread may be preferable in some respects, and may be bought at a considerable reduction.

Other institutions (# 11, # 14, # 30, # 31, # 67, # 70, # 71,

75, # 81, # 93, # 94, # 95, # 97, # 100), most of them quite large, find it convenient and economical to have their own bakeries. The children as a rule do not work in the bakeries, but in some cases are interested and like to help. Several boys from one institution (# 72) have, upon leaving, obtained good positions with bakers. In one Indian school (# 94), the baking department is a very important one as the boys learn baking as a trade. It is the opinion of the sister at this institution that the bread baked there goes farther than the bought bread. In another institution (# 72), it is felt that home-baked bread goes thrice as far. Moreover, when bread is baked at home, you know just what goes in it. In another home (# 11), a very large one, cookies and cakes are baked daily.

The equipment in most of the institutions is up-to-date and similar to that used in commercial bakeries. It differs somewhat in detail from institution to institution according to the size and needs of each. The following descriptions are fairly representative:

The bakery is a bright sunny room back of the kitchen, equipped with a five-tier oven where ninety loaves are baked at a time. More than two hundred loaves are baked each week. When the loaves are taken from the oven they are placed in a portable bread wagon to cool, and are then wrapped in cloths and packed in large homemade boxes. An electric mixer is used for the dough. The long work table has a zinc top. It is equipped with two sets of drawers in the middle, and bins for flour are built underneath, each bin holding half a barrel. (# 71, 114 children)

The bake shop has a five-barrel bin in which the flour is deposited, then conveyed through a tunnel up and over the electric mixer, and sifted. A tank with properly tempered water is at the side of the mixer. When the dough is mixed, it is turned into receivers to rise. An electric molder shapes the loaves of bread, which are then put in the bread pans to rise again in the steam-heated closet. The oven holds three hundred loaves of bread. About five barrels of flour is the daily consumption. An electric breadcutter, designed by one of the sisters, cuts a loaf of bread at one pressure. About four hundred slices can be cut per minute. (# 67, 844 children)

The bread room contains two electric mixers, a marble-topped

work table, and an electric bake oven. The containers for staples are labeled, and are mounted on rollers to obviate lifting. (# 81)

In one home, where 200 loaves are baked one day and not used until the next, they are kept on metal shelves that are easily cleaned and are accessible from all sides. Old table linens and other large cloths are laid on the shelves and folded over the bread. Thus the bread is protected from dust, flies, etc. (# 201)

e. *Housekeeper's Office.* The person in charge of purchase, storage, and preparation of food needs his or her own office, with desk, files, telephone and other necessary equipment. A convenient location for the office is near the kitchen and dining-rooms.

2. DINING ROOMS

The rooms set apart for the serving of food should of course be located near the kitchen. They are preferably situated on the ground floor. Basement locations are as a rule not desirable. Plenty of sunlight and air are important in view both of healthfulness and of cheeriness. Provision should be made for as many windows as possible.

The present drift in our institutions of all types,—cottage, group, and congregate,—is decidedly away from the large single dining room for all and toward the cluster of smaller dining rooms, one for each section or group of children. Some institutions (e.g., # 68, # 105) have found it possible at relatively slight expense to divide their former large single dining room into several smaller ones by the use of partitions or walls. This change has not added to the labor of the staff, and has contributed notably, in the experience of the respective institutions, to order, quiet, and table manners, while at the same time marking a great step away from "institutional" atmosphere. The institutions that have made the change are enthusiastic over the results.

Where there are very young children or babies, they almost always have their own separate dining room (e.g., # 38, # 39, # 66, # 81, # 88) furnished with small-size tables and chairs, and with dishes, silverware, and decorations adapted to their age. Tableware decorated with Mother Goose, bluebird, and other nursery patterns

especially suited for small children is used in some institutions (e.g., # 66) and has much to recommend it. It entails little or no additional cost.

a. *Seating.* The general tendency, regardless of the total number of children assigned to any given dining room, is to have small tables seating four, six or eight, with individual chairs. In some cases, special provision is made for chums or for members of the same family (e.g., #93, # 94) to sit together, where they so wish. Usually there is just enough room in the institution dining room to accommodate the current population; hence families and friends of the children cannot be invited for meals. In some institutions, however, the children may go out on the grounds, under the trees, for a picnic lunch with visiting relatives or friends. Rubber-tipped chairs lessen noise.

b. *Decoration.* To judge from the present study, our institutions are making great efforts to have the dining rooms as cheerful and homelike as possible. Some of the outstanding decorative features are: walls painted in light colors, attractive window treatment, —curtains with bright-colored and harmonizing overdrapes,—cut flowers, plants, ferns, hanging baskets, birds, and well chosen pictures. In one boys' institution (# 80), the walls are paneled in oak, the work having been done by the boys in the manual training class. In another (# 71), there is a large open fireplace in each of the cottage dining rooms. In another (# 72), cut flowers on the table the year round have proved to be an incentive to keep the table neat and clean. If the tables are not kept clean, the flowers are taken away.

In dining rooms for older children, the children themselves are in some institutions allowed to choose the decorations. Most satisfactory results have been attained by this method.

Each of the fourteen groups is allowed to decorate its own dining room according to the ideas of the children within the group. In some instances the draperies of the windows are similar to those in their group living rooms. Some prefer plants and flowers, others have chosen pictures for the main decoration, and so on. In every instance, however, individuality is displayed. (# 14)

There are individual dining rooms for each group. The

decorative scheme is carried out according to the girls' own ideas. The tables are kept supplied with fresh flowers. The girls take great pride in keeping the dining rooms well cared for. (# 79)

At Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter, and other seasons, the children like to help in decorating the dining rooms, making colored shades for the electric lights, etc. The practice develops latent artistic talent. (# 201)

c. *Table Linen.* The use of napkins is quite universal. These are sometimes marked with the individual name, but more often they are kept in rings. One institution (# 88) has discontinued the use of rings as unsatisfactory, since the rings found their way too often to the floor. The keeping of used napkins in tumblers may not be entirely sanitary. Instead of napkin rings, flat linen napkin holders may be used. The majority of institutions provide tablecloths. As a general rule, napkins are changed twice a week; tablecloths, once a week and oftener if necessary. The children are taught to be careful.

In order to encourage the children to take proper care of the tablecloths, a flag is placed on those tables which present the neatest appearance at the end of the week. The children are anxious to obtain the flag, and the same tables do not ordinarily receive the coveted prize every week. (# 11)

It is a recognized rule that all breaking of dishes and all spilling of food on the tablecloth are penalized. If a dish is broken in a dining room which happens to have the flag that is awarded for dining room deportment, this prize is at once lifted and awarded to the next dining room. If a dish is broken in the second dining room the flag is transferred back to the first. Spilling and breakage have been kept down to the minimum, and carefulness is becoming a definite part of the children's lives. (# 68)

Ordinary oilcloth is most unattractive. When one tablecloth has to last a whole week, it may be reversed in the middle of the week. Tablecloths that are rubberized, but that have no appearance of oilcloth, may now be had in attractive white and colored designs and can be wiped off with a damp cloth after each meal. One institution has rose-colored tablecloths to

match the color scheme of one dining room, and blue for another. They are mercerized and very silky in appearance. (# 201)

In institutions where tablecloths are not in everyday use, the tops of the tables are often covered with glass or composition material. One institution which feels that it cannot afford tablecloths daily, uses them on Sundays and holidays. The use of tablecloths is recommended as more homelike.

d. *Table Equipment.* Knives, forks and spoons are generally silverplate and kept in good condition. Dishes as a rule are plain white but well shaped and not too heavy. Occasionally, where finer dishes are used, they are trimmed with bands or floral designs. This type is frequently used by the older children who consider it a privilege and take special care of it. In some places it has been found practical to purchase complete sets of dishes at one time so that all match. This of course adds greatly to the good appearance of the table. It is always well to buy a pattern in "open stock", so that broken dishes can easily be replaced.

e. *Serving.* The problem of keeping food hot during transfer from kitchen to dining room has been solved in many instances (e.g., # 11, # 71, # 88) by the use of specially constructed carts. One type, for example, (# 71) is arranged like a steam table with deep compartments and is heated by soapstone disks. It is rolled to the serving room, and after each meal is returned to the kitchen to be cleaned. As a rule, the food is transferred from the cart to platters or dishes, which are served to individual tables. But in some places there are regular steam tables in the serving rooms. These have been found particularly valuable where the children do not all eat at the same time, such as at the noon hour when they come in from school in "shifts". The steam tables in one institution (# 14) are hot water tanks with compartments for soup, meat, two vegetables, and a dessert. The food containers are of different sizes and rest in the hot water. To allow greater capacity, each has a high cover, which fits very tightly.

The outright or modified cafeteria plan simplifies the serving problem, but most institutions that have commented on this plan feel that it is not homelike.

f. *Dishwashing.* Where so many dishes are used for every

meal, regardless of how simple the meal may be, the washing is naturally a problem. In only one of the institutions studied is a dishwashing machine used. This device has saved an enormous amount of drudgery.

The children collect the dishes after the meal and pile them on a long table at one side of the dishwashing machine. The dishes are fed to the machine, washed with hot soapy water in one compartment, rinsed in another, and finally slide out hot and clean in a tray on the other side. The children then dry them, stack them on another table, and reset the dining room tables. (# 11)

The more common procedure is for the children in groups, assigned from time to time, to do the dishwashing in serving rooms off the main dining rooms. Some institutions feel that, inasmuch as dishwashing by hand is the rule in the households to which the children will return, a certain amount of such 'drudgery' has some training value in habit, if not in skill. The serving rooms are equipped with sinks familiar to those found in the ordinary kitchen. One institution (# 72) has provided a low sink so that it is as easy for the small and intermediate children to wash the dishes as it is for the older ones. Another (# 97) has five different sinks; in one of these plates only are washed; in another, cups; in a third, silver; and so on. In only one institution (# 88) was it found that each girl washes her own dishes and returns them to the table. In this instance a hired maid, assisted by two children working in turns, looks after the cleaning-up of the serving room. The boys in this same home take turns, in groups of six, at washing dishes.

Neatness and order seem to be taken for granted in our institutional dining rooms. Tables are generally reset just as soon as the dishes from one meal have been washed and dried. In order to protect the dishes between meals, in one institution (# 94) there are for each table white covers that tie at the corners. In another (# 80), the china and glassware are placed in cupboards built in directly over the sinks.

A particularly good arrangement seems to be that of one large home (# 14) where each group has its own dining room. Here there is a cupboard with glass doors between the dining room and

service room. On the dining room side are shelves where glass and chinaware not to be used for the next meal can be neatly placed until wanted again. On the serving room side are drawers for linen, dish towels, and silverware, and still others for soap, cleaner, and polishers. A somewhat similar plan is found in another home (# 72). There are cupboards on both sides of the serving room. Those on the side next to the dining room have doors opening into both serving and dining room and contain the dishes in more common use. Those on the other wall are built with a work table under overhanging cabinets and over the bottom ones.

Dish towels are used to dry the dishes, and fresh ones are supplied every day in some places, and after every meal in others. As a general rule, they are done up in the laundry. In some institutions, however, they are washed by hand and hung in the yard to dry. A highly satisfactory device used in at least two institutions (# 72, # 88) is a special towel drier, heated by gas, which "dries, bleaches, and sterilizes" the towels after each use.

3. DORMITORIES

In institutions that accept both boys and girls, there are of course separate dormitories for each sex. The number and size of dormitories in a given institution depend largely on the policy governing that institution.

a. *Size.* In dormitories, as in dining rooms, the decided trend is toward the *small-capacity room* and away from the large-capacity type. The following examples may be given in illustration of this tendency.

There are nine well-lighted and well-ventilated dormitories, each accommodating nine to fifteen children. (# 50)

In this group institution, with a population of 151, the following arrangement obtains. There are sixteen dormitories,—one room containing fifteen beds for the younger children; ten rooms for the middle group, each containing from three to fifteen beds; finally there are five rooms, not one of which has more than three beds, for the fourteen seniors. (# 55)

Among a great many of the institutions studied, whose population is under 200 (e.g., # 13, # 31, # 38, # 42, # 55, # 83), the

number of beds to a single dormitory varies from seven to eighteen. However, no matter how many beds there are in one room, the space must be large enough to accommodate them properly. The standard usually set is: "In sleeping rooms 500 cubic feet of air space should be allowed for each child, and beds should be at least 3 feet apart at the sides. . . . In sleeping rooms not less than 10 feet high a floor space of 50 square feet is required for every child. With beds 3 feet apart at the sides this requires an aisle space of about 4 feet at the ends. It does not permit the placing of beds end to end" (Handbook for Institutions, U. S. Children's Bureau, publ. no. 170, 25).

b. *Arrangement*. As a rule the beds stand in straight rows. In some institutions (e.g., # 88), the beds however are arranged diagonally. In another (# 14), the children are allowed to decide on the arrangement, so that in one room the beds may be in straight rows, while in the next they may be in semi-circles, and so on. In some homes (e.g., # 67), as a precaution against contagion the beds are so placed that the children sleep in alternating positions, one with head up, the next with head down, so that they do not breathe into each others' faces.

c. *Ventilation*. Cross ventilation is a necessity and this is provided by windows on three sides of the sleeping rooms or else by ventilators built in the wall where there are no windows. Nevertheless, although cross ventilation is urged, precaution must be taken lest the children sleep in drafts. One institution (# 76) that is particularly airy has solved this problem by having a semi-partition down the center of the room. The heads of the beds rest against this. The Conference cordially recommends the use of transom windows in dormitories.

Ventilation in dormitories is secured by transom windows, about a foot high, hinging horizontally on their lower edge, at the top of the sliding window. By this plan excellent ventilation in all kinds of weather and also good cross ventilation are secured. Rain does not beat in nor does snow drift in, nor are there drafts on the heads of the children who sleep near the window. (# 66, # 105)

d. *Sunlight*. Sunlight as well as air is important in sleeping quarters. One institution (# 79) is so orientated that the dormi-

tories get the sun practically all day. This has its disadvantage, however, from the fact that in that part of the dormitory into which the sun shines very early in the morning, the light is liable to waken the children, particularly the very young ones, and necessitates someone rising to be with them. One home (# 81) has found that crash curtains of dark color effectively protect the eyes and the sleepers are undisturbed. Another (# 72) uses heavy tan duck shades which hang from a single pulley and can be lowered from the top or raised from the bottom.

e. *Beds.* That each child should have an individual bed is a rigid requirement that is universally accepted and carried out. Experience appears to show that the most satisfactory bed is one of sturdy construction, and of metal that can be easily cleaned. Well-made springs and good mattresses and pillows not only add to comfort but are also economical. The usual equipment consists of two sheets, pillowcase, blanket or blankets according to climate and season of the year, and spread. A rubber pad placed between the mattress and sheet does not make the bed less comfortable and certainly makes it more sanitary. Under ordinary conditions, linen is changed twice a week in some institutions, once a week in others. Once a week should be the minimum.

f. *Lockers and Dressing Rooms.* The subject of locker provision was treated in some detail in the chapter on Mental Health. Some additional data on dormitory lockers are here added. The ordinary device for keeping clothes separate is the individual locker. Sometimes everyday clothes are kept in lockers located near the dormitory, dress clothes in another set of lockers. Lockers are either of metal or of wood, and oftentimes (e.g., # 37) there are open-face ones just for hats and coats. In one home (# 87) there are open-face lockers in the dormitories, with cretonne curtains which add much to the attractiveness of the room. Another home (# 49) considers built-in wooden lockers with a screened hole at the back for ventilation very satisfactory. Some institutions have lockers in the halls just outside the dormitories. Suits and dresses are usually on hangers.

Where there is a locker room, used as well for a dressing room, it adjoins the dormitory. The following excerpt illustrates a very convenient arrangement.

In the locker room which is next to the dormitory there is a long low bench in the center between rows of lockers where the children may lay their clothes when dressing and undressing and where they may sit while putting on or taking off shoes and stockings. (# 71)

Where children may put their day clothes at night and their night clothes during the day is a problem which is solved very readily in those institutions which have the locker rooms next to the dormitories. Other institutions (# 14, # 72) have found it practical to have regular dressing rooms distinct from locker rooms and containing individual compartments for the children, as is shown by the following illustration.

In newer parts of the building there are dressing rooms. Here are individual sections where children dress and undress. There is a place for their everyday clothing, their dress clothes being kept in separate lockers in another part of the building. There is also a special compartment for shoes, and a square compartment with shelves for underclothes. On top each child may keep a box or little suitcase for small trinkets that otherwise might easily be lost. There is ample space for nightclothes and bath robe to be hung in the day time. (# 14)

The alcove plan disposes of this problem of night and day clothes very satisfactorily, but unfortunately this type of dormitory is restricted to use by older girls. In the majority of cases, it is customary for the children to put their day clothes over the foot of the bed at night, or on a chair by the bed. It is better not to put nightclothes under the pillow during the day, but to hang them where they will be well aired. In some institutions the beds have a small metal bar at the foot or one high post with hooks, on which day clothing may be hung.

g. Decoration and Furnishing. The introduction of color into dormitories seems to be the prevailing mode in attempting to make them more attractive and homelike. In more instances than one, a dormitory containing the usual white iron beds has been transformed by substituting a cover of some pretty color for the regulation white spread. The crinkled or ripplette spreads seem to be the most popular as they can be bought in a great variety of colors, are inexpensive, and are not easily rumpled. In one institution (# 88),

the girls cleverly embroidered designs on unbleached muslin spreads for their own dormitories, and liked them so well that they decided to work similar ones for the boys. One institution for boys uses sport blankets instead of spreads. These blankets in warm colors and broad bold designs lend color, variety, life, and camp-like atmosphere to the dormitories, and are very serviceable. In another home, dark cretonne spreads, brown and tan striped, have been found most practical as well as good-looking.

Although there are chairs beside the beds, the boys are apt to throw themselves on the beds while waiting for baths and so on, and with these dark spreads we do not have to keep nagging at them. To lend variety, different colored spreads are used at different seasons of the year. (# 91)

In some institutions each dormitory in the house is done in a different color. Where it is possible to carry out the color scheme in greater detail, so much the better. Restful colors for walls and bed are no more expensive than plain white. An example may be given of one very attractive arrangement.

This dormitory has sixteen beds of white iron, with small ivory-colored tables and chairs beside each. The bed spreads are of blue-and-white-striped material, and the wool blankets are designed in large blocks of blue and white. Curtains of unbleached muslin, with a five-inch border of delft blue, can be drawn around each bed, giving the effect of an alcove. (# 81)

The desire to get away from the regulation institution furnishing is obvious in the following illustrations.

The dormitories are equipped with mahogany-colored metal beds and mahogany-colored "cathedral" chairs beside each bed. The spreads are pink and white in one dormitory, lavender and white in another, and so on. Each dormitory is in a different color, and a corresponding color scheme is carried out in each group living room. Thus one group is known as the "pink group", another as the "lavender group", a third as the "gold group" and so forth. (# 49)

The beds are of metal in shades of green, buff, grey, and tan, purchased on special order. Beside each bed is a chair to

match, of very artistic design, and a rug of harmonizing color. The children's robes and slippers are of a contrasting color, matching the spreads and shams. The effect is a very pleasing one. (# 25)

The senior girls' dormitory is very attractive with easy chairs, tables, rugs, and hangings. (# 42)

In the senior girls' dormitory, one corner has recently been cleared as a sort of sitting room. Here are a couple of tables, two settees, and some easy chairs. The girls commonly gather here informally for a chat, for sewing and embroidery, or for other amusement or employment, in the evening before bed time. (# 133)

h. *Cubicles and Compartments.* Children of high-school age need more privacy in their sleeping and dressing quarters than do younger children. This need is met in some institutions by having small two-bed to five-bed dormitories; in others (e.g., # 79, # 84), by curtaining off the dormitories into compartments; in others (e.g., # 22, # 55, # 79, # 81), by providing individual cubicles or alcoves. Details on this point have already been given attention in the chapter on Mental Health; so the subject is given only brief mention here.

i. *Supervision.* As a rule, one member of the staff is assigned to each dormitory. In some places, part of the dormitory is partitioned off by curtains or other means, so that the staff member assigned can have personal privacy and yet can be in a position to supervise the dormitory. In others the dormitory supervisor has a separate room adjoining the dormitory, with a small window opening into the children's quarters. In one home studied (# 81), two of the older girls help in supervising the dormitory for girls from three to seven years of age. The assignment of these two older girls is changed each week to avoid monotony.

In the dormitories of some institutions a dim light is left burning all night. One institution (#76) has arranged the electric wiring so that there is a button in the sister's cubicle that switches on the light in the center of the dormitory. This is very convenient in case of emergency. We have not found base-board lighting, as in many newer hospitals in use in any of the institutions studied, but may recommend it as worthy of investigation to homes that are planning changes in the night lighting system.

4. BATHING, TOILET AND LAVATORY FACILITIES

Bathing, toilet and lavatory facilities are located conveniently near the dormitories. One toilet to eight or ten children, one tub or shower to six or eight children, and one bowl with hot and cold water to four children are considered adequate. The toilet and wash rooms should be well ventilated and lighted. They should be placed so that sunlight, with its disinfectant properties, should reach them some time during the day. There should be as many windows as possible, and, if necessary, these may have frosted glass panes to ensure privacy. In the institutions studied everything in these rooms is kept scrupulously clean. The floors are of material that can be easily washed,—tile and terrazzo being the materials most often chosen.

a. *Lavatories.* The lavatory as a rule contains rows of individual basins with faucets for hot and cold water. These rows may be against the wall, or there may be a double row in the center of the room. The bowls should be of different heights for the convenience of children of different sizes. Institutions that use mechanical devices for mixing the hot and cold water find them very helpful.

It is important to have the toilet articles of each individual kept separate and handy in the lavatory. Some institutions (# 39, # 76, # 88, # 93) provide open-face compartments, marked distinctly for each individual using the room. In these small compartments are kept comb, brush, toothbrush and toothpaste, and drinking glass. One of the institutions (# 39) uses a square of vitrialite in the bottom of the compartment; this can be easily cleaned and does not gather dust. Other institutions have other devices: in # 11, there are individual bags hanging on hooks around the walls; in # 7, there are small boxes; in # 14, the sisters have made muslin casings that spread the whole length of each row of bowls, with individual pocket-like sections for each child. These casings are neat and sanitary as they can easily be laundered.

Mirrors are a necessary part of lavatory equipment. In the day lavatory of one institution (# 72), the mirrors are over the bowls and bordered in white tile, top and bottom. The glass is divided into sections, so that if one section is broken it can be replaced

at less expense than could a large mirror extending the whole length. Mirrors should be placed low for small children.

Towels are so arranged that they do not touch. One plan (# 66) is to put them in open face lockers; other institutions (e.g., # 11) provide hooks around the wall; still others (e.g., # 88) have projecting bars over each basin with plenty of space between. There are labeled bins made of steel in the wash room of # 35, into which soiled towels and other articles to be laundered are put.

There should be convenient lavatories on the ground floor, so that children can wash their hands and faces before meals as they come in from play, school and so forth. This saves time, and helps keep the house in order, as children do not then have to run upstairs at odd hours during the day.

In general, ample provision should be made for handwashing facilities convenient to school rooms, toilets, playrooms, playgrounds, and dining rooms. Handwashing in running water, instead of plugged basins, is more sanitary. Warm as well as cold water is desirable for real cleanliness. Experience differs as to whether bar soap, liquid soap, or powdered soap is preferable. Each type has its advantages and its drawbacks. The common towel is rigidly taboo, as it is a dangerous germ-spreader. The children should, in the interests of health and cleanliness, be trained to the habit of frequent handwashing, especially before meals, after use of toilet, and of course on rising and retiring.

b. *Toilets.* In many cases the toilet room opens off the lavatory. Enclosed toilets are used in all instances. One institution (# 14) has installed toilets that flush automatically. The open-front or U-shaped toilet seat has been found satisfactory in some institutions (e.g., # 71, # 72). Toilet paper is provided in each section. It is important that special size toilets be provided for babies and smaller children. Urinals are in use in some institutions (e.g., # 25, # 31, # 93), but their use is being discarded in others (e.g., # 88). One home (# 72) has reverted to urinals in the day toilet, equipped with automatic flush.

It is essential to have toilet facilities in proximity to playrooms and playgrounds, as well as near the dormitories. One institution (# 39) has a terrazzo floor in the toilet rooms on the ground floor and in the well-equipped outdoor toilet at the rear of the playground.

These floors have a drain in the center so that they may be washed easily,—with a hose if so desired.

Most institutional authorities would probably agree with the opening sentence in the following statement made in the course of the present study by one superintendent of long experience who has given particular attention to problems of plant and equipment. His experiments may be of interest to other superintendents.

The toilet rooms are the crux in any institution. A number of years ago ours were lined with slate slabs, but experience showed that these discolored and also absorbed urine odor. We then discarded all special urinals and installed toilet bowls instead, all enclosed in partitions made of heavily-enameled steel. Results: uric acid split the seats and corroded the hinges; bowls frequently became blocked by trash falling from the museum-like pockets of the boys; the metal partitions crusted with rust due to atmospheric conditions, the rust in places even eating through the sheets. Today we have tile flooring, tile wainscoting, porcelain urinals, marble partitions, whalebonite seats, and bakelite hinges. The appearance is good. This new equipment, now in use for two years, has given great satisfaction. The expenditure has been a little high, but we feel it has been justified by the results. (# 72)

c. *Drinking Fountains.* The common drinking cup, like the common towel, is a most effective spreader of disease germs. The provision of individual paper cups is a little expensive. The drinking fountain is probably the best solution of the problem. But even the drinking fountain should be so constructed that the mouth does not touch the metal or porcelain. An oblique flow or jet is preferable to a vertical one, as germs may, it is claimed, be kept for some time in the vertical jet, particularly if the flow is slight, just as a ball is kept playing in ornamental fountains (cf. Broadhurst, *Home and Community Hygiene*, 256-57). For small children the drinking fountains should be, as in e.g., # 133, set low.

Tub and shower facilities have been discussed at length in the section on Bathing in the Chapter on Physical Care and Health Training. The following excerpt may however be added.

The bath room of the very small children has 12 basins, 5 elevated tubs, and 2 toilets. White rockers are conveniently

placed for use by the children while awaiting their bath. Some of the children bring dolls with them, others bring toys. A very family-like air prevails. (# 39)

5. LAUNDRY

Nearly all the institutions studied have their own laundry, with adequate facilities in proportion to the size of population. The plant generally consists of two large well equipped rooms, one for washing and the other for ironing, located either in a separate building or in the basement or ground floor of the institution proper. In all cases, effort is made to have these rooms as light and airy as possible. Electric fans are provided where the window ventilation is found insufficient. In one institution (# 67) where the ironing room is exceptionally attractive, there are flower boxes in all the windows.

Practically all of the laundries electrically equipped have washers, wringers, and ironers, while some of the large institutions also have extractors, tumblers and presses. All of these devices are invaluable savers of time, labor, and money. Washers, extractors, tumblers, ironers, presses,—each come in for special commendation by those in charge of the laundries in the institutions studied.

It need hardly be added that laundry machinery should be thoroughly protected, and, so far as possible, made "fool-proof", regardless of whether the workers be adults or not. "This means that all belting, shafting and gearing must be guarded, that machines be equipped with safety devices. In some states there is a penalty for the removal of these devices. Some states require the use of devices for the automatic stopping of machines when necessary" (Balderston, Laundering, 309). State laws as well as the requirements of Workmen's Compensation and of industrial insurance should be scrupulously observed, both as a legal and as a grave moral obligation. In some institutions (e.g., # 67, # 71) outdoor space is provided where the clothes are dried in good weather.

It is the policy in some homes to allow no accumulation of soiled linen and clothes. The laundry operates six days a week. On the other hand, many institutions gather together and store the soiled laundry in accordance with varying methods. The following examples may be cited.

In one section of the washing room are baskets in which the soiled clothing is deposited. The clothing is brought from the cottages in baskets, each basket having a number corresponding to the particular cottage from which it comes. The women employed in the laundry sort the clothing for the wash machines, and each assortment is placed in a basket. Days for washing and for ironing certain kinds of laundry are fixed. The laundry machinery is operated four days a week. On the fifth and sixth days the clothes are sorted and placed in their individual receptacles for distribution throughout the institution. Each cottage is provided with a hamper for its clean laundry, and each hamper is put in its special place under the counter at the entrance to the ironing room, where it remains until called for by the respective groups. (# 14)

Each group has a separate bin in the basement room for soiled clothes. Large baskets on rollers are used to transport the clothing through the tunnel to the laundry. Washing is done on Monday and ironing on Tuesday. Much of the children's clothing is ironed in their group departments. (# 88)

Soiled clothes are collected in a main room on the ground floor by means of a chute accessible to each floor. (# 54)

Whether there has been infectious illness or not, all laundry from the infirmary should be washed separately. Many institutions (e.g., # 14, # 54, # 79, # 81, # 88) have the laundry from the contagious disease ward first disinfected and then sent in individual containers to the regular laundry, where it goes through the boiling and washing machines after the other clothes have been removed.

It is a general policy to have a sister in charge of the laundry to supervise paid employees. There is usually one man employed to perform the heavy tasks connected with the machinery. The number of employees varies from institution to institution, depending on the amount of work to be done. One institution (# 66, 342 children) employs a trained laundryman and six women. Another (# 88), whose population is about half the size of the first, employs two men on laundry days and two additional women, and these are assisted by the lay workers from each group.

In the present study, we were unable to obtain conclusive evidence as to whether laundering can be done more cheaply by the

institution laundry or by an outside commercial laundry. A study of this question would be well worth while, and it is hoped that the study may be made in the near future. Meanwhile it is recommended that institutions make individual studies of their local problem of comparative costs. One of our newer institutions now in course of construction, has, as a result of such study of comparative costs, decided not to build its own laundry, but to send out its wash to commercial laundries, as being in the long run more economical. A further question may be raised as worth serious thought. Given our limitations of personnel, could the attention, time, and energy devoted to the laundry be better given to the direct training of the children?

6. SEWING ROOM

The size, location, and equipment of the sewing and repair room must depend on local resources and needs. Good lighting is important. Simple, attractive decoration helps to make the room home-like for staff and children, and to lighten the labor itself. Labor-saving equipment, especially for "drudgery" tasks in sewing and repair work that have little domestic training value, is highly desirable. The darning machine, mentioned in another chapter as in use in some institutions (e.g., #66, #91), is particularly valuable as a time-saver. The following excerpts illustrate other labor-saving devices.

The very large and well-lighted sewing room is equipped with a long table on which are arranged six power sewing machines, one cross-stitcher, and one buttonhole machine. These are all driven by a large electric motor. Other sewing tables and two ordinary sewing machines for lighter work are also provided. One wall has cupboard space from floor to ceiling, for sewing material, patches, and so forth. (# 72)

One institution has an electric machine that cuts out from a pattern dozens of sets of underclothing at a time and that has proven a great saver of time and energy. (# 201)

7. CUPBOARDS, CLOSETS, AND STOREROOMS

It is felt in all institutions that it is hardly possible to have too much cupboard and closet space. Even in some of the newer institutions the closet and storeroom space is often found insufficient,

and sometimes gravely so. The placing, number, and size of the cupboards will depend of course on local conditions, size of the institution, and so forth. The following suggestions may be made.

Space for hats, coats and overshoes should be provided near the entrances used by the children, and space in the basement for the children's skates, sleds, and other playthings for use out of doors. The necessity of individual lockers for personal possessions and for clothes has been treated elsewhere in the present manual. Shoe rooms with shelves divided off into marked sections for the extra pairs of shoes of each individual are very convenient, especially when equipped with shoe cleaning and polishing apparatus.

The storage of food supplies has been treated earlier in the present chapter. Clothing supplies are usually stored in large rooms and so arranged that each article is easily accessible. Cedar-lined closets are used in some institutions as a protection against moths. Conveniently near the dormitory should be ample space for bed linens, towels and so forth. This room should be large, light and well ventilated, with at least one outside window to admit air and sunshine. Finally, adequate space for care of cleaning materials,—mops, brooms, cloths, furniture polish, and the like,—is essential. Institutions that have in mind putting up new buildings or expanding their closet and storage facilities may profit by the many excellent suggestions along this line found in: Lydia Southard, *Institutional Household Administration*, 76-77, 100-1, 150-57, 177.

8. LIVING ROOMS

The first requisite for a living room is that it be "liveable". The room should be large enough to accommodate comfortably the group assigned to it. There should be a sufficient number of chairs,—some straight and some rockers,—of sizes suitable for the children using them. General experience appears to show that hardwood floors are the most satisfactory for the living room. As there is a decided tendency among children to sit on the floor a great deal, their clothes become very soiled if oil is used, and stone floors are too cold. Radios, victrolas, player pianos, and pianos are welcome additions, if they can be afforded. Light and lamp shades of soft colors are ordinarily preferable to glaring white lights. Floor lamps are not expensive and help give a homelike touch. A table

with children's magazines and a bookcase with literature adapted to the children are valuable for filling leisure hours with wholesome and educative amusement. Small group or cottage libraries are well located (e.g., # 66, # 68) in or next to the living room. Game tables and a generous supply of indoor games are commonly found in the living rooms of our institutions. Drapes, wall pictures, rugs, flowers, window boxes, canaries, and gold fish add to the attractiveness of living rooms. A religious statue with lamp and flowers in the children's care helps carry religious influence into leisure time activities, and to strengthen in the children's mind the traditional Catholic association of prayer and play.

Living rooms should have the imprint of use. They should show signs of "orderly disorder," if the children are of the healthy type we want. (# 307)

In the present study it was found that nearly all our institutions are employing a great variety of devices to make the living rooms appeal to children. The following descriptions illustrate some good features.

On the first floor of each cottage is a spacious living room. This room has an open fireplace, and the windows are curtained. There are four lounges, three or four upholstered rocking chairs, a number of baby chairs and about fifteen or twenty straight-back chairs. Floor lamps furnish part of the light. There is also a victrola which is used a great deal by the children. Off the living room there is a library with a large table and many books and magazines for children. In an adjoining room is a radio. (# 66)

The seniors' living room is unusually homelike and attractive. The floor is of hardwood and is covered with rugs of dark blue and gray. The chairs and davenport are of wicker, painted dark and finished with brushgold tint. The divan is heaped with pillows of different colors. The window drapes and the curtains of the bookcases correspond. There is a floor lamp. The victrola is much used as is also the baby grand piano. Fresh flowers are kept in front of the statue of the Blessed Virgin all the time. The girls are free to bring their relatives and friends to this room at any time. (# 81)

Each living room has nine or ten windows, and a door leading on to a screened porch which has benches and swings. Lockers and shelves for personal possessions are in each room and many toys are in evidence. The pictures vary from room to room, according to the age and taste of the occupants. There is no set arrangement for chairs,—some are at tables, others in groups, still others stand singly. The various rooms have plants, cut flowers, birds, or goldfish. (# 88)

The open fireplace is a very desirable feature in institutions where the climate warrants its use. One institution (# 71) has a fireplace of a different design in each cottage living room. In this, wood fires are made, and often in the evening the children gather about the fire and pop corn or toast bread while the cottage mother tells stories. Rugs on the floors, and lamps placed conveniently for reading, add homelike touches. It has been found well to have plenty of table space for games; regulation card tables are handy as they can be folded up and kept near without being in the way.

9. RECEPTION ROOMS

It is desirable that reception rooms be attractively furnished. The rooms in one institution (# 71) have each a fireplace which adds a note of homelike comfort. Where there are set visiting days and a large number of people come to see the children, it is the usual custom (e.g., # 14, # 22, # 25, # 34, # 55, # 79) to have all receive together in one large room. When there is no set day for visiting and where not so many persons are expected at one time, small individual rooms are available (e.g., # 30, # 36, # 37, # 70). In cottage institutions (# 66, # 71) it has been found that one reception room in each cottage is sufficient. A few institutions (# 18, # 88, # 91) provide both a general reception room and private ones. Others have the children receive their visitors in the living rooms (# 39, # 64, # 80, # 81), in the play room (# 11), or in the auditorium (# 67). In one institution (# 72) the children receive their visitors in the recreation hall, except on special occasions when they may use the regular reception room of the house. This room is furnished in mission oak and leather furniture, is bright and sunny, has plants, and pictures of activities of the institution. In nearly all cases, privacy may be had outside on the grounds.

10. AUDITORIUM

A great number of our institutions have assembly rooms. Some have large auditoriums with stages well equipped for theatrical presentations; others have less elaborate auditoriums with small stages or platforms. As a rule the chairs are movable so that the rooms can be used for other than theatrical purposes, such as parties, dances, and so forth. In a few institutions (e.g., # 39, # 81) portable bleachers are provided. One (# 79) has seats that are pew style with a drop leaf on the back so that the children may take notes at lecture courses. Plenty of daylight is provided as there are usually windows on both sides. Drinking fountains are usually located in the halls near the entrance.

Some auditoriums with large stages (# 14, # 33, # 71, # 81, # 86, # 88, # 94, # 97) have drop curtains, scenery, and good lighting effects, and a couple (# 14, # 71) have dressing rooms and waiting rooms. The seating capacity should of course be sufficient to take care of the population. In some auditoriums there is ample room for visitors as well. One institution (# 33), which has a particularly fine auditorium, that was donated by the builder of the institution, and that has a separate entrance other than through the institution, rents the auditorium out to Catholic societies.

All auditoriums, large and small, have provision for moving pictures. The precaution should be taken, as is done in most cases, of having the machine cabinet fireproof. Local laws often require this. A further commendable precaution taken by some homes (e.g., # 67) is to have films run off only by licensed operators gotten in from the outside for moving picture shows given in the institution. Equipment for sound pictures as well as for silent films is rapidly becoming imperative.

A combination auditorium and indoor gymnasium is easily possible, and is often found. This plan economizes both space and finance, and works out well in practice.

11. FARM

A large number of the institutions studied (e.g., # 11, # 24, # 27, # 31, # 38, # 54, # 65, # 67, # 71, # 72, # 75, # 95, # 97) have their own farms. Many find the farm valuable for the following reasons: (1) it provides an ample supply of fresh milk,

eggs, vegetables, and other products; (2) it often offers facilities for outings, excursions, and similar forms of outdoor recreation; (3) it gives opportunity for a certain amount of cultural, prevocational, and informational education; (4) it may, if competently operated, represent a financial saving.

As regards this fourth consideration, experience differs. Some institutions find the farm more a liability than an asset.

The farm was run at a loss of \$2,000.00 last year. Often farm managers work well at first, but soon grow neglectful. They need at least weekly supervision and the work must be directed for them. (# 72)

Three of the twelve cows were lost through a fire, and the remaining nine were disposed of. Since then the milk and butter needed have been purchased, and the new plan has been found as economical as the old one, if not more so. (# 65)

Other institutions (e.g., # 24, # 31, # 71) consider the farm a financial asset. In view of this differing experience, institutions that have not recently made an intensive study of the comparative costs of farm maintenance and of food purchase costs may find it worth while financially to undertake such a study of their local problem.

Two very serious hazards of the institutional farm are: (1) its care and supervision may absorb a great amount of the time and energy of the superintendent and staff that could be devoted to tasks more immediately affecting the welfare and training of the children; (2) its operation may lead to too much employment of the children in drudgery tasks that have little or no educative or vocational value, particularly for children who will live their lives in cities.

The layout and equipment will differ in accordance with local needs and resources. Valuable suggestions on equipment and operation can be obtained at little or no cost from the U. S. Department of Agriculture and from state agricultural colleges. It is of course important that the superintendent of the farm and dairy be a thoroughly competent one, preferably a graduate of an agricultural college, particularly if he is charged, as he is in some rurally located institutions, with the task of training the older boys in the science and art of farming and dairying. Both he and his paid assistants

should be men of sterling character, if they are in direct contact with the children.

C. GENERAL SERVICE

I. SANITATION

a. *Plumbing.* The institutions on which we have information regarding plumbing all agree in having up-to-date standard equipment in excellent condition. Pipes should be easily accessible so that they can be kept in good repair. One institution (# 71) has provided for this by having the walls specially constructed so that the pipes are in the space between them and can be reached through narrow doors of regular height which are kept locked. Another (# 14) has a tunnel which extends in all four directions of the plant from a tank room where water is stored. This tunnel contains the pipes for all plumbing through the institution. The pipes are covered with heavy asbestos and each pipe contains the proper number of valves for emergency in case of accident or leakage.

b. *Sewage.* Where so located, as are a great many of the institutions (e.g., # 11, # 14, # 20, # 25, # 30, # 33, # 39, # 42, # 64, # 72, # 88), that the sewage may be disposed of through connection with the municipal system, no problem arises. Where this is not possible, various methods are used. None of these should be adopted however without the advice of experts, who are the only ones qualified to determine which type of purification process should be installed. "In certain cases sewage may be disposed of by dilution in streams, but it takes an expert to tell whether any stream is of suitable size and whether conditions permit sewage thus taken from any institution to be disposed of so that a nuisance will not arise. If this method is not feasible some other must be employed, depending in every case on the extent to which the final affluent must be purified before finally being disposed of and allowed to run into streams or creeks" (Handbook for Institutions, U. S. Children's Bureau, publ. no. 170, 21).

In some institutions (# 22, # 93, # 100), the sewage passes through a series of underground septic tanks before it empties into the river; while other institutions (# 54, # 95) find it necessary to have the sewage carried off through filter beds even before reaching the septic tanks. One institution (# 81) has found the chemical

cesspool satisfactory, whereas another (# 94) has experienced trouble with it.

c. *Water Supply*. The same rule holds true for water supply as for the disposal of sewage: if the municipal system can be utilized, this should be done; if it is not possible, "the institution. . . should have the services of a sanitary engineer and construct an adequate plant under expert direction" (Handbook for Institutions, 20). The usual plan among institutions with their own water supply (e.g., # 54, # 64, # 71, # 80, # 81, # 93, # 95, # 97) is to have the water pumped from their wells to a reservoir from which it is piped to all parts of the plant. In one institution (# 81), water used in the laundry is afterwards treated and then used for irrigation of crops. A couple of institutions (# 22, # 100) use artesian wells for drinking water, and have water pumped from the lake for laundry and similar purposes. Sometimes, as in # 54, where the water is pumped from a river instead of from wells, it is necessary that a filtration plant be installed. In localities where the water is hard, it should be softened. Softening the water used for laundry and general household is a relatively simple and inexpensive process and effects very great saving of soap and labor. One institution (# 71) finds the "Refinite" process a very satisfactory one.

Institutions that have their own supply should have it analyzed frequently by the local health authorities to make sure it is free of dangerous disease germs.

d. *Garbage Disposal*. Here again municipal service is decidedly convenient. Where it cannot be procured, other means must be taken to dispose of garbage. If a farm is connected with the institution, the problem is partly solved, as some of the garbage can be used as food for pigs, the rest being burned. The general rule seems to be daily removal of garbage whether it is taken away by the city or burned on the grounds. Nearly all the institutions have incinerators. One has the following plan:

The fruit skins are placed in the incinerator. Cans, old bottles and broken dishes are carted away by the city. Bones are sold, and garbage fit for chickens and for pigs is removed every day by the man in charge of the hen houses and piggeries. (# 14)

So as not to detract from the appearance of the grounds, # 81 has placed the incinerator behind green lattice-work, with flowers in front of it. Some institutions (e.g., # 72) find it profitable to bale and sell all waste paper.

e. *Floors and Walls.* Many institutions use composition floors where it is necessary for sanitary reasons that they be washed often, as in kitchens, dining rooms, lavatories, and so forth. One (# 80) considers battleship linoleum particularly satisfactory, while another (# 64) finds that painted cement floors, too, have the advantage of being easily cleaned. When one institution (# 25) was being built several years ago, a search was made to find the very best material for floors throughout the building. Terrazzo, which has been especially tested for sanitary properties and durability, was selected. Terrazzo is the selection of another (# 18) where the only woodwork in the building is that in window frames and doors. There are no stairways, ramps being used instead. Terrazzo throughout is thought by some (e.g., # 72) to be too cold and institutional in appearance. As a rule hardwood floors are used for the larger part of the building, and it has been found in most cases that waxing is more satisfactory than oiling, as the former needs to be done less often and is cleaner. Slippery waxed floors may, however, be dangerous. One (# 72) particularly emphasizes the value of laboratory enamel for walls and woodwork instead of ordinary paint. Enamel-paint, while more expensive, is more durable, and can be washed more easily and frequently.

f. *Beds.* Beds and bedding should be aired and sunned frequently. Some institutions (e.g., # 11, # 55, # 79, # 93) have this done daily; others (e.g., # 39, # 64, # 80, # 81, # 88, # 95) consider once a week sufficient. Most (e.g., # 79, # 81, # 88, # 93) do not have regular times at which the bed springs are disinfected, but have this done only when necessary. One (# 11) has the springs and frames washed with a disinfectant once a week, while another (# 64) has this done only once in two months. A very good practice (# 39) is that of having all mattresses and pillows renovated yearly. Another (# 36) is that of having men from the city service the bed springs once a month.

g. *Screens.* Where the climate demands their use, screens are important to keep out flies, mosquitos, and other insects. At the

summer home (# 22), the window of the cottages are screened, and the cottages themselves are built on raised foundations to prevent vermin from entering. It is not necessary in all places to have the windows screened the year round. Some institutions (e.g., # 14, # 72) use screens from about April to November, when they are removed. They are cleaned and repaired before being stored. A couple of the homes (# 71, # 100), in the north, find it necessary to have screens in summer and storm sashes in winter.

2. FIRE PROTECTION

Adequate fire protection is of the utmost importance. Most of the institutions studied have their doors opening outward and have adequate means of escape. A few (# 80, # 88) have automatic fire locks on the doors. Fire extinguishers in the buildings are important and are in general use. The following is a description of an extinguishing system that does away with the necessity of having the cumbersome and disfiguring fire hose.

A sprinkler system has been installed throughout the building. A large machine in the cellar forces the water. Throughout the house are pipes extending through the walls and having an outlet in each room by means of faucet-like valves coated with a wax preparation. In case of fire, the heat dissolves this covering of valves, and they immediately begin to operate and to sprinkle the water through the plant. (# 30)

Institutions within reach of fire departments should have regulation water hydrants on the grounds and near the buildings. Many have chutes as well as fire escapes.

a. *Alarms.* Many institutions have fire gongs that can be heard all over the house. One has the following very effective system of alarms.

In each building there is a red iron fire-alarm box, circular in form, with glass cover. In case of fire, this glass can be broken by a little iron knocker which hangs by the alarm. Each cottage has its own signal, to let the others know just where the fire is. Thus if one cottage should take fire, its number will ring everywhere throughout the plant, except in the hospital. The hospital alarm rings everywhere throughout the plant. The batteries for this system are in the engine

room and when they need recharging an automatic signal is sounded. (# 71)

Besides having adequate automatic alarms, many institutions (e.g., # 11, # 14, # 39, # 67, # 79, # 80, # 93 # 112) have watchmen patrol the grounds and buildings at night. In one (# 11) the watchman at regular intervals punches a clock connected with the Western Union Fire Protective Service.

b. *Inspection.* Most states require regular inspection of institutions by officials to see that there exist no fire hazards, such as exposed electric wires, heaps of rubbish, or heating plants improperly cared for. All homes must comply with state requirements.

c. *Insurance.* Institutions should of course carry insurance. Those for which exact data were obtained (e.g., # 14, # 67, # 72, # 81, # 88) carry between eighty and ninety per cent of their valuation. Apropos of fire insurance, we may suggest the advisability of other types of insurance,—against tornados, accidents to children, and so forth.

d. *Drills.* Fire drills are very important. The emergency may never arise, but in the long run it usually does, and when it does there is little time for planning. The planning, on which the lives of scores of children may hang, must be done in advance by systematic inspection and drills.

The drills are held at varying intervals by different institutions. Some consider once a week frequent enough; others, once in two weeks; still others, once a month. The majority (e.g., # 6, # 11, # 64, # 93) seem to be in favor of having the drills in the day time. In one (# 64), the drills are held in the day time, but during the rest period in order to avoid confusion and nervousness on the part of children at night. On the other hand, it is considered advisable by others (e.g., # 55, # 88) to have drills sometimes at night in order to accustom the children to getting out quickly. The following excerpt outlines an interesting and suggestive system.

Fire drills are held regularly twice a month from the school building, also the same number of times from the dormitories, and record thereof is kept as required by the State Board of Charities. During Fire Prevention Week, appropriate exercises are held. The chief of the Fire Department and his

assistants visit the Home to witness a fire drill, and the Chief addresses the children. On one recent occasion, the children, preceded by the boys' band, marched around the grounds, after which a playlet was presented by some of the children who carried placards showing the causes of fire,—“Gasoline”, “Rubbish”, “Electricity”, “Light”, “Matches”, “Cigarettes”, and lastly the one which includes everything, “Carelessness”. (# 67)

3. LIGHTING

a. *Natural Light.* The following general standards for school rooms hold also for study halls and work rooms, and are desirable for most other rooms of the institution. Unilateral lighting from the left is ordinarily best. Window area should be one-sixth to one-fifth as large as floor area. In very wide or long rooms, rear as well as left lighting may be necessary. On dull or cloudy days, the desks farthest from the windows may be insufficiently lighted, even where the above requirements are fulfilled. Artificial lighting of the relatively dark parts of the room may be required. Two other features, shades and color scheme, help. More light enters from the upper than from the lower parts of high windows, hence shades fastened at the bottom or in the middle are preferable. Walls and ceilings of soft colors, such as ivory, cream, or light gray, green or buff, distribute the light more evenly. (Cf. Broadhurst, *Home and Community Hygiene*, 258-59).

If a building faces the southeast or southwest, the sun hits each side of the building some time during the day. Our institutions realize the value of sunlight and ordinarily they have planned with a view to having as many rooms as possible receive direct sunlight during the day. When one building (# 22) was remodeled, the lighting was very appreciably improved by removing the inside shutters and by painting the walls a cream color.

b. *Artificial Light.* It is agreed that electricity is the most satisfactory artificial light. A great many use the city systems, but others have found it worth while to install their own plants. This is particularly the case where the institution is large and uses a great deal of electric machinery. The following excerpt illustrates use of both city system and institutional plant.

The institution lighting system is linked up with the city system, so that in case of emergency the plant is never without electricity. The home generates its own electricity throughout the day until 9:00 p. m. when the city electricity is switched on. It costs the orphanage two and a half cents per kilowatt to generate its own power as compared with the outside charge of six and a half cents per kilowatt. (# 14)

There should be a sufficient amount of artificial light, but care should be taken lest there be too great a glare. Indirect lighting is preferable to direct lighting. Most lights for general purposes are high in the ceiling, and are covered by inverted semi-opaque bowls whereby the light is diffused evenly to all parts of the room. For special purposes, however, such as reading or writing, the light should be nearer and more direct, but so shaded that it does not shine directly in the eyes. In one institution (# 25), the lighting fixtures have a special ground glass shade,—the type in use in the Statler hotel system,—which has been found very satisfactorily toned for all purposes. Artificial light, like natural, should come from the side and rear.

It need hardly be added that where an institution has in mind installing a new lighting system or modifying an old one, the services of an expert should be secured.

4. HEATING

The majority of our institutions studied use steam heat and have central heating plants. Some, however (e.g., # 55, # 71), use vapor heat; others (e.g., # 64), hot water heat. The advantages of vapor heat over steam and hot water systems claimed by one institution (# 71) are that vapor is more quickly forced throughout the entire plant and that it maintains a more uniform temperature at all times.

Coal is the fuel generally used. One large institution (# 67) makes special mention of using a high grade of coal, which, though a little more expensive per ton than poorer grades, gives a very low per cent of ash and saves both labor in taking out ashes and wear and tear on the boilers.

Indoor temperature should be maintained between 68° and 70° Fahrenheit, or, as some hold, between 66° and 68°. This is an im-

portant item. "The New York State Commission on Ventilation, in a study of this subject, found that in a room at 75 degrees people did 15 per cent less work than in a room at 68 degrees. The studies of the Commission showed, also, that the higher the temperature the more likely were the children to have colds and other diseases of the nose and throat" (Winslow, *The Janitor and the School Child*, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 6-7). A lower temperature, 60° or even less, may be sufficient in gymnasiums or playrooms if the children are engaged in active exercise.

5. VENTILATION

In maintaining the desired temperature in any room, ventilation must, of course, be taken into account. The air should be pure and warm, and should contain a certain amount of moisture. "If rooms at 20° to 21° C. (68° to 70° F.) are not warm enough, it is because the air is too dry, and the resultant evaporation gives the sensation of 'chill' which makes us demand more heat, when we might more economically secure comfort by adding moisture only" (Broadhurst, *Home and Community Hygiene*, 142). Steam heating apparatus usually has special valves which take care of this, but, if such is not the case, sufficient moisture may be supplied by placing a *large* pan of water on the radiator or else by hanging a very moist rag behind it.

All our institutions agree that cross ventilation is essential. Windows are the best means of procuring movement of air. Doors opposite windows often facilitate circulation of air. Care must be taken lest drafts blow upon the occupants of the room. Window boards may be placed at the bottom of open windows to prevent breezes blowing directly upon those who sit near the windows. One institution has screens covering the top half of the window space on one side of the room, and the lower half of the windows on the other side, so that the windows may be put down a little from the top and up a little from the bottom to provide cross ventilation and at the same time to prevent drafts. At the summer camp of one home (# 22), the upper sash of the windows opens from the top and tilts back into the room at various angles. This plan which has worked very satisfactorily is somewhat similar to the transom device mentioned in the section on Dormitories in the present chapter. In some homes (e.g., # 18, # 25), all the windows have transoms.

Air chambers under the roof sometimes help circulation of air, and also exclude heat in the summertime. In # 22 and # 71, there are double windows at each end of the attics.

If the amount of natural ventilation is not sufficient, various methods of securing artificial are used by different institutions. Some of these have been mentioned in the section on Kitchens of the present chapter. Some institutions (# 63, # 80) have installed inside wall ventilators which are operated from the power house and which are considered very satisfactory. The following description illustrates a special type that has worked well.

In each school room, ventilation is provided both by the numerous windows and by a special device. The steam radiator and fan arrangement are encased in a sheet iron cabinet of attractive appearance. They are placed at one of the windows in the center of one wall, and shut off only one half of a lower window sash. The fan is operated by a motor in the basement and is turned on and off by a button in the room. Cold air is fanned in from the outside and is heated by the radiator before it is diffused through the room. By closing the trap cover which fits over the radiator and by then reversing the fan, used air is removed by suction to the outside. This device has proved very satisfactory, occupies very little space, and shuts off only part of a lower sash. (# 71)

As in the problem of lighting, so in those of heating and ventilation, and, for that matter, in practically all problems that concern plant and equipment, the advice and services of experts are imperative. Securing the very best experts is in the long run the most economical policy. The scattered and random suggestions ventured in the foregoing pages are in no sense a substitute for such expert direction. Moreover, what is best to-day may be superseded by something better tomorrow.

REFERENCES

The best short comprehensive treatment of institutional plant and equipment is that in: *Handbook for institutions*, U. S. Children's bureau, publ. no. 170, ch. III-IV, pp. 15-36, bibliography, pp. 122-23.

Among the numerous standard works dealing in detailed manner with the more important phases of institutional plant, equipment, and general service may be recommended the following: J. O. Dahl, *Kitchen management, construction, plan-*

ning, administration,—on all phases of problem, with reproductions of numerous floor plans of large kitchens, on pp. 300-41; Lydia Southard, *Institutional household administration*,—on general household management, including office management, purchasing, equipment, cleaning, storing, etc.; Lydia Ray Balderston, *Housewifery: a manual and textbook of practical housekeeping*, 4th rev. ed., 1928,—on plumbing, heating and lighting, labor-saving appliances, household supplies and furnishings, storage, cleaning; L. R. Balderston, *Laundrying: home—institution*,—on all phases of problem. Jean Broadhurst, *Home and community hygiene*, 4th enl. and rev. ed., 1929,—on water supply, sewage and refuse disposal, pp. 92-171, on schools, pp. 255-72, bibliography, pp. 425-31. All of these works are profusely illustrated and intensely practical. Institutional staffs will find therein a multitude of concrete useful suggestions that will promote effective householding and save time, labor, and expense.

Current commercial developments may be kept abreast of by consulting the standard advertising source on all matters of construction and equipment: *Sweet's Engineering catalogue*, publ. annually. Many valuable hints on equipment may also be gathered from *Good housekeeping*, and from the articles and advertising pages of such periodicals as *The Hotel Bulletin*, *The Hotel Monthly*, *The Modern Hospital*.

As suggested in the text, consultation of references should be carefully checked up by visits to child-caring homes, hotels, hospitals, colleges, academies, and other institutions, and particularly by recourse to the counsel and services of the *best experts* in architecture, building, equipment, sanitation, and institutional householding.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following is a list of the books, pamphlets, and articles referred to in the text of the present work and in the selected lists of references at the end of each chapter.

The sources marked with a double asterisk are suggested as a minimum reference or working library for the use of the staff of the institution; those marked with a single asterisk, as additional sources for a larger reference or working library.

The cost for all the works marked with a double asterisk is well under \$50.00; for all the additional works marked with a single asterisk, well under \$100.00. In most institutions, friends of the institution or societies or organizations interested in its welfare and progress could easily be persuaded to donate the sum needed to purchase such a nucleus of a working library, to cover current subscriptions to the periodicals recommended, and to procure important new books and pamphlets as they appear.

- "Aids to discipline", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Apr. 1926, x, 142-44.
- Aldrich, C. A., *Cultivating the child's appetite*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 127.
- Allen, F. J., *Practice in vocational guidance: a book of readings*, (McGraw-Hill), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 306.
- Allen, F. J., *Principles and problems in vocational guidance: a book of readings*, (McGraw-Hill), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 390.
- *Alter, K. J., "Special training for religious in children's institutions", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Feb. 1927, xi, 59-61.
- American journal of public health and Nation's health* (combined), publ. monthly by Amer. public health assoc., 370 7th ave., N. Y. C. Subscription \$5.00 a year.
- Annette, Sister M., "The mental defective in our orphan asylums," with Discussion, in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting of the Special conference of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Milwaukee, 1921, 56-61.
- "Another cottage plan institution", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Jan. 1923, vii, 20-21.
- Baker, S. J., *Child hygiene*, (Harper), N. Y., 1925. Pp. 534.
- *Balderston, L. R., *Laundering, home-institution*, (Lippincott), Phila., 1923. Pp. 389.
- *Balderston, L. R., *Housewifery: a manual and textbook of practical housekeeping*, 4th rev. ed., (Lippincott), Phila., 1928. Pp. 355.
- Baldt, L. I., *Selection and care of clothing*, Farmers' bull. 1089, U. S. Dept. of agriculture, Washington, D. C., 1920. Pp. 32.
- **Bancroft, J. H., *Games for the playground, home, school and gymnasium*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1921. Pp. 456.
- Benedict, Sister M., "Problems of discipline in institutions", in *Proc. 9th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Phila., 1923, 304-07.
- Blong, A. M., "Institution intake", in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 182-86.

- *Bonser, F. G., and Mossman, L. C., *Industrial arts for elementary schools*, (Macmillan), 1923. Pp. 491.
- Books for boys and girls*, (Boys and girls house), Public library of Toronto, Canada, 1927. Pp. 290.
- Broadhurst, J., *Home and community hygiene*, 4th rev. and enl. ed., (Lippincott), Phila., 1929. Pp. 469.
- **Burt, C., *The young delinquent*, (Appleton), N. Y., 1925. Pp. 619.
- **Butler, E. J., "Standards of child placing and supervision", repr. from *Cath. char. rev.*, Nov. 1920, in *Program for Catholic childcaring homes*, Nat. conf. Cath. char., Washington, D. C., 1923, Appendix B, 30-39.
- **Butler, E. J., "The essentials of placement in free family homes", in *Foster-home care for dependent children*, rev. ed., publ. no. 136, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1926, 33-50.
- Cadieux, L. E., *Practical talks with the Christian child: a brief manual of manners and morals*, (American book co.), N. Y., 1914. Pp. 59.
- Carstens, C. C., "What children should be received for care by an institution or agency and what is the responsibility for those not accepted?", in *Proc. 52nd Nat. conf. social work*, Denver, 1925, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1925, 83-88.
- Carter, W. E., "Physical findings in problem children", in *Mental hygiene*, Jan. 1926, x, 75-84.
- ***Catholic charities review*, publ. mthly except July-Aug., by National conference of Catholic charities, 1103 Vermont ave., Washington, D. C. Subscription \$1.00 a year.
- **Catholic educational review*, publ. mthly exc. July-Aug., by Catholic education press, Washington, D. C. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- **Catholic school interests*, publ. mthly by L. F. Happel, Elmhurst, Ill. Subscription \$2.00 a year.
- Catholic summer camp*, Nat. conf. Cath. char., Washington, D. C., 1928. Pp. 84.
- Celestine, Sister, ["Group system"], in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 301-03.
- Chadwick, H. D., and McPhedran, F. M., *Childhood type of tuberculosis: diagnostic aids*, National tuberculosis assoc., 370 7th ave., N. Y. C., 1930. Pp. 29.
- ["Character education"], a symposium, in *Proc. 26th Annual meeting Nat. Cath. educ. assoc.*, Washington, D. C., 1929, 450-573.
- Child welfare*, publ. mthly Sept. to June, bi-mthly July and Aug., by Child welfare co., 5517 Germantown ave., Phila. Subscription \$1.00 a year.
- ***Child welfare league of America*, *Bulletin*, publ. mthly exc. July-Aug., Child welfare league of America, 130 East 22nd st., N. Y. C. Subscription \$1.00 a year.
- **Child-caring institutions: suggested minimum standards for children's homes in Ohio*, Div. of charities, Dept. of public welfare, Columbus, Ohio, July, 1925. Pp. 54.
- Children*. See *Parents' magazine*.
- Clapp, R., "Dependent children: a measuring stick", in *The Survey*, May 15, 1926. lvi, 239-41.
- "Clothing in Catholic children's homes", Round-table discussion by Sisters Estelle, Miriam Regina, and Fidelis, and Father Daniel, in *Proc. 14th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, St. Louis, 1928, 445-49.

- Coleman, A. H., "Opportunities for research in venereal disease control in institutions", in *Proc. 55th Nat. conf. social work*, Memphis, 1928, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1928, 442-46.
- *Collins, A., *A Catholic high school library list*, Educ. bull. no. 1, Nat. Cath. welfare conference, Washington, D. C., 1928. Pp. 208.
- "Concerning mental deficiency", in *Mental hygiene bulletin*, June, 1926, iv, 5.
- Cooper, J. M., *Sex education in the home*, (Nat. conf. Cath. char.), Washington, D. C., 1921. Pp. 32.
- Cooper, J. M., [Series of seven articles on various phases of play], in *Cath. educ. rev.*, Dec. 1921-June, 1922, xix-xx.
- Cooper, J. M., "A magna charta for the girl and woman in athletics", repr. from *Cath. char. rev.*, Jan. 1925, ix, 3-6, (Nat. conf. Cath. char.), Washington, D. C. Pp. 12.
- Cooper, J. M., "Girls' athletics at the crossroads", in *Cath. educ. rev.*, Mar. 1925, xxiii, 140-47.
- Cooper, J. M., "Do play traits breed life traits?", in *Cath. char. rev.*, May, 1925, ix, 170-73.
- Cooper, J. M., "Diagnosis and treatment of the factors in moral conduct", in *Proc. 26th Annual meeting Nat. Cath. educ. assoc.*, Washington, D. C., 1929, 559-66.
- Coulter, J. S., "Be careful with ultraviolet", in *Hygeia*, Apr. 1928, vi, 203-04.
- Crumbine, S. J., and Tobey, J. A., *The most nearly perfect food; the story of milk*, (Williams and Wilkins), Baltimore, 1929. Pp. 292.
- Curtis, H. S., *Education through play*, (Macmillan), 1921. Pp. 359.
- **Curtis, H. S., *School grounds and play*, bull., 1921, no. 45, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., 1922. Pp. 31.
- *Dahl, J. O., *Kitchen management, construction, planning, administration*, (Harper), N. Y., 1928. Pp. 364.
- Davies, S. P., *Social control of the feeble-minded*, (Nat. committee for mental hygiene), N. Y., 1923. Pp. 222.
- Davies, S. P., *Social control of the mentally deficient*, (Crowell), N. Y., 1930. Pp. 389.
- *Deegan, Sister M., "Religious training in child-caring homes", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 327-29.
- Directory of psychiatric clinics for children*, 2nd ed., (Div. of publications, Commonwealth fund), N. Y., 1928. Pp. 181.
- Doherty, J., "Agencies for determining whether care outside of own home is necessary, and if so, what kind of care", in *Proc. 52nd Nat. conf. social work*, Denver, 1925, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1925, 88-94.
- *Doran, M. S., and Reynolds, B. C., *The selection of foster homes for children*, (New York school of social work), N. Y., 1919. Pp. 74.
- Duffy, C., "After care of children discharged from the institution", in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting Special conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Milwaukee, 1921, 49-53.
- Eisenbacher, G., "Vocational training in our institutions", in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting of Special conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Milwaukee, 1921, 19-23.
- Fay, T., and others, "Symposium on epilepsy", in *International clinics*, v. iii, 40th series, Sept. 1930, (Lippincott), Phila., 1930, 78-108.

- **Foster-home care for dependent children*, rev. ed., publ. no. 136, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 289.
- Frances Jerome, Sister, ["Alumni societies"], in *Proc. 9th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Phila., 1923, 307-08.
- Franzen, R., *Physical measures of growth and nutrition*, School health research monographs, no. II, Amer. child health assoc., N. Y., 1929. Pp. 138.
- Furfey, P. H., "The problem of recreation particularly as it affects child-caring institutions", in *Proc. 9th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Phila., 1923, 311-15.
- **Furfey, P. H., *The gang age*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1926. Pp. 189.
- Furfey, P. H., *The parish and play*, (Dolphin press), Phila., 1928. Pp. 181.
- *Furfey, P. H., *Social problems of childhood*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1929. Pp. 288.
- **Furfey, P. H., *You and your children*, (Benziger), N. Y., 1929. Pp. 180.
- Gillett, L. H., *Diet for the school child*, rev. ed., Health educ. no. 2, U. S. Bureau of educ., Washington, D. C., 1922. Pp. 15.
- Golden Jubilee 1879-1929, St. Joseph's home*, Peekskill, N. Y., [1929]. Pp. 88.
- **Goldrich, L. W., *A manual for cottage mothers and supervisors*, (Hebrew sheltering guardian society), Pleasantville, N. Y., 1925. Pp. 136.
- Goldrich, L. W., *Hebrew sheltering guardian society, 3rd Annual report, Child guidance department*, Pleasantville, N. Y., Oct. 1928. Mimeo.
- Good housekeeping*, publ. monthly by International magazine co., 57th st. at 8th ave., N. Y. C. Subscription \$2.50 a year.
- ***Handbook for the use of boards of directors, superintendents, and staffs of institutions for dependent children*, publ. no. 170, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1927. Pp. 129.
- Hard-of-hearing child*, School health studies no. 13, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., July, 1927. Pp. 14.
- Hart, H. H., *Cottage and congregate institutions for children*, (Russell Sage foundation), N. Y., 1910. Pp. 136.
- Hart, H. H., *The job of being a trustee*, (Russell Sage foundation), N. Y., 1916. Pp. 16.
- Hartshorne, H., and May, M. A., *Studies in deceit*, (Macmillan), 1928. Pp. 414, 306.
- Hartshorne, H., May, M. A., and Maller, J. B., *Studies in service and self-control*, (Macmillan), 1929. Pp. 559.
- Hartshorne, H., May, M. A., and Shuttleworth, F. K., *Studies in the organization of character*, (Macmillan), 1930. Pp. 503.
- ***Health bulletin for teachers*, publ. mthly exc. July-Sept. by Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y. C. Gratis on request.
- **Health education self-appraisal form for institutions for dependent children*, Health educ. committee of Section for dependent children, Welfare council of New York City, 1929. Typed.
- *Healy, W., *Honesty*, (Bobbs-Merrill), Indianapolis, 1915. Pp. 220.
- Healy, W., *Mental conflicts and misconduct*, (Little, Brown), Boston, (1917), 1923. Pp. 330.
- **Healy, W., *The individual delinquent*, (Little, Brown), Boston, (1915), 1922. Pp. 830.
- *Healy, Wm., and Bronner, A. F., *Judge Baker foundation case studies, 1-20*, (Judge Baker foundation), Boston, 1922-23.
- Healy, W., and Bronner, A. F., *Delinquents and criminals*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1926. Pp. 317.

- Healy, W., Bronner, A. F., Baylor, E. M. H., and Murphy, J. P., *Reconstructing behavior in youth*, (Knopf), N. Y., 1929. Pp. 325.
- Hebrew sheltering guardian society, *Report of Board of directors, May 27, 1928*, Pleasantville, N. Y., 1928. Pp. 44.
- *Helena, Sister, "Religious training in child-caring homes", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 326-27.
- Hewins, K. P., Webster, L. J., and Evans, M. L., *The work of child-placing agencies*, publ. no. 171, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1927. Pp. 223.
- *Hollingworth, L. S., *Gifted children*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1926. Pp. 374.
- Hotel bulletin*, publ. mthly, 175 W. Jackson blvd., Chicago. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- Hotel monthly*, publ. mthly, 443 S. Dearborn st., Chicago. Subscription \$1.00 a year.
- Howe, P. R., *Your child's teeth*, folder no. 12, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 8.
- Hull, E. R., S. J., *The formation of character*, (Herder), St. Louis, 1909. Pp. 123.
- Hull, E. R., S. J., *Collapses in adult life: a sequel to "The formation of character"*, (Herder), St. Louis, 1920. Pp. 114.
- Hunt, C. L., *Food for young children*, rev. ed., Farmers' bull. 717, U. S. Dept. of agriculture, Washington, D. C., 1922. Pp. 26.
- Hunt, C. W., *What shall we read to the children?*, (Houghton Mifflin), Boston, 1915. Pp. 156.
- *Huston, W., *Social welfare laws of the forty-eight states*, (Wendell Huston co.), Des Moines, Iowa, 1930. Loose leaf.
- Hyatt, T. P., *Care of the teeth*, Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y., no date. Pp. 15.
- **Hygeia, publ. mthly by American medical assoc., 535 N. Dearborn st., Chicago, Ill. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- Infant welfare society of Minneapolis, *How to get children to drink milk, to eat vegetables, to eat cereals and fruits*, no date. Three one-page leaflets.
- "I. Q. to Coventry", in *The Survey*, Jan. 15, 1931, lxxv, 448-49.
- *Irwin, E. A., and Marks, L. A., *Fitting the school to the child*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1924. Pp. 339.
- James Stanislaus, Sister, *Manner and good manners*, (Benziger), N. Y., 1929. Pp. 142.
- *Jamison, A. T., *The institution for children*, (Baptist book depository), Columbia, S. C., no date. Pp. 207.
- Jane Frances, Sister, "Alumni societies in institutions", in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting Special conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Milwaukee, 1921, 10-13, with Discussion by Sister Stanislaus, 13-15.
- *Job, L. B., *Business management of institutional homes for children*, (Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia univ.), N. Y., 1926. Pp. 207.
- *Johnson, G. E., *Education by plays and games*, (Ginn), Boston, 1907. Pp. 234.
- Journal of home economics*, publ. mthly by Amer. home economics assoc., Balto., Md. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- **Journal of religious instruction*, publ. mthly exc. July-Aug. by De Paul university, Chicago. Subscription \$2.00 a year.

- *Kelly, D. J., and Knowlton, E. F., *A practicable school health program*, rev. ed., monograph no. 1, School health bureau, Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y., 1930. Pp. 32.
- Kerr, M., "Something new in Jackstone tournaments", in *Playground and recreation*, June, 1929, xxiii, 174.
- Kirsch, F. M., O.M.Cap., *Sex education and training in chastity*, (Benziger), N. Y., 1930. Pp. 540.
- Klein, A., *Posture clinics*, publ. no. 164, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 32.
- Klein, A. and Thomas, L. C., *Posture exercises*, publ. no. 165, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 33.
- Labaree, M. S., "The case work process in children's institutions", in *Bulletin Child welfare league of America*, Mar. 1930, ix, 2-3.
- Laws relating to interstate placement of dependent children*, publ. no. 139, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1924. Pp. 32.
- **Lee, J., ed., *The normal course in play*, rev. and enl. ed., (Barnes), N. Y., 1926. Pp. 268.
- Leete, M. M., *The Children's bureau of Cleveland*, publ. no. 177, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1927. Pp. 98.
- Lehman, H. C., and Witty, P. A., *The psychology of play activities*, (Barnes), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 242.
- Leonard, E. L., and Wallace, M., "Home and institutional child life: an analysis", in *Proc. 14th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, St. Louis, 1928, 261-85.
- Library books for the elementary schools in the archdiocese of Dubuque*, Bureau of education, Archdiocese of Dubuque, Dubuque, Iowa, no date. Pp. 54.
- Lindworsky, J., S.J., *The training of the will*, tr., (Bruce publ. co.), Milwaukee, 1929. Pp. 226.
- List of psychiatric clinics for children in the United States*, publ. no. 191, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 28.
- List of references on play and playgrounds*, library leaflet no. 29, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., 1924. Pp. 13.
- *Lockington, W. J., S.J., *Bodily health and spiritual vigour*, (Longmans, Green), N. Y., 1919. Pp. 126.
- Loretta, Sister, ["Alumni societies"], in *Proc. 9th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Phila., 1923, 308.
- Loyola, Sister M., "Method of developing the child's character in institutions", in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Buffalo, 1926, 417-19.
- Lucilla, Sister, ["Group system"], in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 297-301.
- Lyman, F. R., *Analysis and tabular summary of state laws relating to jurisdiction in children's cases and cases of domestic relations in the United States*, chart no. 17, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1930. Pp. 33.
- McCabe, M. R., *List of references on vocational guidance*, library leaflet no. 36, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 21.
- McClain, E., *Child placing in Ohio*, Div. of charities, Dept. of public welfare, Columbus, Ohio, 1928. Pp. 88.
- McElroy, F. P., "The planning of a new institution for children", in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Los Angeles, 1927, 351-53.
- McEntegart, B. J., "Institutions for children—their relation to other agencies",

- in *Proc. 51st Nat. conf. social work*, Toronto, 1924, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1924, 139-44.
- McGoldrick, R. C., "Literature and youth", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Oct. 1927, xi, 305-07.
- McHugh, R., "Types of investigation necessary before breaking up the family", in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Los Angeles, 1927, 73-83.
- McKenna, C. F., art. "Orphans and orphanages", in *Cath. encycl.*, xi.
- **McMunigle, M. G., *Art education through religion*, books 1-8, (Mentzer Bush), N. Y., 1930.
- Mahony, B. E., and Whitney, E., *Realms of gold in children's books*, (Doubleday, Doran), Garden City, N. Y., 1929. Pp. 796.
- *Mangold, G. B., *Problems of child welfare*, rev. ed., (Macmillan), N. Y., 1924. Pp. 602.
- ***1st Annual for Cottage Mothers*, (Child welfare league of America), 130 E. 22nd st., N. Y. C. (In preparation).
- ***Manual of health supervision in child caring homes*, Catholic charities of the archdiocese of New York, 477 Madison ave., N. Y. C., 1930. Pp. 17.
- Marie, Sister, "Planning for the child's future", in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Buffalo, 1926, 421-26.
- Marriott, W. McK., "Influence of diet on bones and teeth", in *Jour. Amer. dental assoc.*, Sept. 1930, xvii, 1648-57.
- Marsh foundation school, First year book*, Van Wert, Ohio, 1927. Pp. 48.
- Mary Eileen, Sister, "Health program for child caring institutions", in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Buffalo, 1926, 426-28.
- Mason, F., "Institution intake", in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 188-91.
- Mendenhall, D. R., *Milk*, publ. no. 163, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 43.
- **Mental hygiene*, publ. quarterly by National committee for mental hygiene, 372-74 Broadway, Albany, N. Y. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- **Mental hygiene bulletin*, publ. mthly exc. July-Aug., by National committee for mental hygiene, 372-74 Broadway, Albany, N. Y.. Subscription \$1.00 a year.
- Meyer, R. J., S. J., *The science of the saints*, 2 vols., (Herder), St. Louis.
- *Miriam Theresa, Sister, "Problems of vocational adjustment", in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Los Angeles, 1927, 353-64.
- Modern hospital, The*, publ. mthly by The modern hospital publishing co., 919 N. Michigan, Chicago, Ill. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- Montegriffo, H. A., "Follow up work in broken families", in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Los Angeles, 1927, 83-87.
- Moore, T. V., O.S.B., *Dynamic psychology*, (Lippincott), Phila., 1924. Pp. 444.
- Moore personality estimate*, (St. Anthony's orphanage), Toledo, Ohio, no date.
- *Morgan, J. J. B., *Psychology of the unadjusted school child*, (Macmillan), N. Y., 1925. Pp. 300.
- Muldoon, M., "Institution intake", in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 186-88.
- Muste, A. J., "The problem of labor representation on the board of the family society", in *Proc. 57th Nat. conf. social work*, Boston, 1930, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1931, 250-57.
- Nash, J. B., *The organization and administration of playgrounds and recreation*, (Barnes), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 547.

- National society for the study of education, *Twenty-third yearbook*, pt. II, *Vocational guidance and vocational education for the industries*, (Public schools publishing co.), Bloomington, Ill., 1924. Pp. 456.
- **Nature magazine*, publ. mthly, Washington, D. C. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- "Necessity of case work methods in child-caring homes", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Dec. 1926, x, 386-87.
- Norris, A. C., "Report of the Chairman of the Committee on hard of hearing children", 1928, repr. from *Volta rev.*, Nov. 1928, xxx, no. 11.
- Nott, W. J., "The children's village of St. Joseph", in *Cath. char. rev.*, May, 1928, xii, 170-71.
- Nourse, J. D., "Posture clinic, St. Joseph's orphanage", Cleveland, Ohio, in *Cath. char. rev.*, Sept. 1928, xii, 248-49.
- O'Grady, J., "Child welfare work and family responsibility", in *Proc. 9th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Phila., 1923, 270-77.
- O'Grady, J., "St. Paul's orphan asylum", in *Cath. char. rev.*, June, 1927, xi, 221-24.
- **O'Grady, J., *An introduction to social work*, (Century), N. Y., 1928. Pp. 398.
- Orphan asylum society in the city of New York*, 120th *Annual report*, Apr. 1, 1926, (Orphanage), Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y.
- M. Otilia, Sister, "After care and boy problems", in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Buffalo, 1926, 428-32.
- Padgett, A. E., "Institution intake", in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 178-81.
- Padgett, A. E., "Are theories practiced?", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Apr. 1929, xiii, 116-18.
- Parents' magazine*, (formerly *Children*), publ. mthly by The parents publishing co., 255 Fourth ave., N. Y. C. Subscription \$2.00 a year.
- Peck, E. F., *Adoption laws in the United States*, publ. no. 148, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1925. Pp. 51.
- Perrin, E., and Turner, G., *Play day: the spirit of sport*, Amer. child health assoc., N. Y., 1929. Pp. 77.
- Plan of financial accounting*, prepared by Child welfare league of America, N. Y.
- **Play areas: their design and equipment*, (Barnes), New York, 1928. Pp. 206.
- Playground and recreation*. See *Recreation*.
- Population reporting for children's institutions and child-caring agencies*, forms and instructions prepared by Child welfare league of America, N. Y.
- **"Postwar progress in child welfare", *Annals American academy of political and social science*, Phila., 1930, vol. 151, 1-219.
- *Pratt, G. K., *Your mind and you*, (Funk and Wagnalls), N. Y., 1924. Pp. 70.
- Pratt, G. K., "Changing concepts of feeble-mindedness", in *Mental hygiene bulletin*, Jan. 1926, iv, 1, 3, 5.
- **Preventive system in education as in use in the schools of the Salesian congregation*, repr. from *Don Bosco messenger*, July, 1925, (148 Main st., New Rochelle, N. Y.), no date. Pp. 20.
- Proffitt, M. M., *Industrial education 1926-28*, bull., 1929, no. 21, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 24.
- ***Program for Catholic childcaring homes*, Report of Committee on standards, Sisters' conference, National conference of Catholic charities, Washington, D. C., 1923. Pp. 39.

- Ralph, G. G., *Elements of record keeping for child-helping organizations*, (Russell Sage foundation), N. Y., 1915. Pp. 195.
- "Recreation", in *Cath. char. rev.*, May, 1926, x, 182-83.
- ***Recreation*, (formerly *Playground and recreation*), publ. mthly by National recreation assoc., (formerly Playground and recreation assoc. of America), 315 4th ave., N. Y. C. Subscription \$2.00 a year.
- **Recreative athletics*, rev. and enl. ed., (Barnes), N. Y., 1929. Pp. 200.
- Reed W. T., "Puppetry", in *Playground and recreation*, June, 1930, xxiv, 171-73.
- **Reeder, R. R., *How two hundred children live and learn*, 4th ed., (Noble), N. Y., 1917. Pp. 247.
- **"Report of Committee on standards in playground apparatus", in *Playground and recreation*, Jan. 1930, xxiii, 631-34.
- Reville, J. C., S. J., *My bookcase*, 2nd rev. ed., (America press), N. Y., 1921. Pp. 139.
- Richardson, C. S., *Round table plan for trustees of institutions for dependent children*, (Russell Sage foundation), N. Y., 1916. Pp. 15.
- Richardson, F. H., "Training the appetite", in *Children*, Jan. 1927, ii, 41-42.
- Roberts, L. J., *What is malnutrition?*, rev. ed., publ. no. 59, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1927. Pp. 19.
- **Rogers, J. F., *What every teacher should know about the physical condition of her pupils*, Health educ. no. 18, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., 1924. Pp. 23.
- Rogers, J. F., *Better teeth*, Health educ. no. 20, U. S. Bureau of education, Washington, D. C., 1927. Pp. 19.
- Rogers, J. F., *School health work 1926-1928*, bull., 1929, no. 8, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 18.
- *Rose, M. S., *Feeding the family*, rev. ed., (Macmillan), N. Y., 1924. Pp. 487.
- Rose, M. D. S., Gray, C. E., and Foster, K. L., *The relation of diet to health and growth of children in institutions*, (Teachers college, Columbia univ.), N. Y., 1930. Pp. 128.
- *Rose de Lima, Sister, "Religious training in child-caring homes", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Nov. 1928, xii, 324-25.
- Russell, M., "A board of directors: its functioning and relationships", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Sept. 1926, x, 243-46.
- Ryan, J. A., art. "Foundling asylums", in *Cath. encycl.*, vi.
- "St. Cloud orphanage", in *Cath. char. rev.*, June, 1927, xi, 224.
- *St. Joseph, Sister, *The right feeding of a well child*, (St. Anthony's orphanage), Toledo, Ohio, no date. Pp. 16.
- "St. Vincent's orphanage for boys, California", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Oct. 1927, xi, 309-10.
- Salesian system of education*, parts I-III, (148 Main st., New Rochelle, N. Y.), 1924-27. Pp. 36, 80, 95.
- *Sayles, M. B., *Three problem children*, (Div. of publications, Commonwealth fund), N. Y., no date. Pp. 146.
- **Sayles, M. B., and Nudd, H. W., *The problem child in school*, (Div. of publications, Commonwealth fund), N. Y., 1925. Pp. 288.
- *Sayles, M. B., *The problem child at home*, (Div. of publications, Commonwealth fund), N. Y., 1928. Pp. 342.
- *Schmiedeler, E., O.S.B., *An introductory study of the family*, (Century), N. Y., 1930. Pp. 348.

- ***School arts magazine*, publ. mthly exc. July-Aug., Davis press, 44 Portland st., Worcester, Mass. Subscription \$3.00 a year.
- School health study of Newton, Massachusetts*, monograph no. 5, School health bureau, Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y., no date. Pp. 87.
- "School library", in *Catholic school interests*, July, 1929, viii, 173-76.
- Schumacher, H. C., "Habit formation through discovering the child at an early age", in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Los Angeles, 1927, 329-37.
- *Shackelford, P. S., *Every child's dietary for mothers and children*, Nat. fed. of day nurseries, N. Y. C., May, 1927. Pp. 46.
- **Sharp, John K., *Aims and methods in teaching religion*, (Benziger), N. Y., 1929. Pp. 407.
- Shields, T. E., *Philosophy of education*, (Catholic education press), Washington, D. C., 1921. Pp. 446.
- "Should teachers and nurses give intelligence tests?", in *Mental hygiene bulletin*, Apr. 1925, iii, 2.
- Simplicita, Sister M., "Standards of moral training of children in institutions", in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Buffalo, 1926, 406-11.
- Sister of Mercy, "Secondary education for institutional children," with Discussion, in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting of Special conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Milwaukee, 1921, 30-33.
- Slingerland, W. H., *Child-placing in families*, (Russell Sage foundation), N. Y., 1919. Pp. 261.
- *Smith, C. F., *Games and recreational methods*, (Dodd, Mead), N. Y., 1924. Pp. 463.
- Smith, C. W., "Venereal disease problems in institutions", in *Proc. 55th Nat. conf. social work*, Memphis, 1928, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1928, 432-42.
- "Soap bubble contests", in *Playground and recreation*, June, 1929, xxiii, 173.
- *Southard, L., *Institutional household administration*, (Lippincott), Phila., 1923. Pp. 214.
- Speakman, M. T., *A brief manual of games for organized play*, rev. ed., publ. no. 113, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1925. Pp. 37.
- *Spencer, M. E., *Health education bibliography for teachers' use, including a list of agencies distributing health material*, Educ. bull. no. 3, Nat. Cath. welfare conference, Washington, D. C., 1924. Pp. 12.
- **Spencer, M. E., *Health through the school day*, Educ. bull. no. 5, Nat. Cath. welfare conf., Washington, D. C., 1924. Pp. 98.
- *Spencer, M. E., *Foods and nutrition*, Educ. bull. no. 7, Nat. Cath. welfare conf., Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 66.
- Spencer, M. E., "Obstacles to character development", in *Proc. 26th Annual meeting Nat. Cath. educ. assoc.*, Washington, D. C., 1929, 546-58.
- Standards for physicians conducting conferences in child-health centers*, publ. no. 154, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1926. Pp. 11.
- *Stanislaus, Sister, "Alumni societies in institutions: Discussion", in *Proc. 2nd Annual meeting Special conf. of religious, Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Milwaukee, 1921, 13-15.
- Strayer, G. D., *Age and grade census of schools and colleges*, bull., 1911, no. 5, U. S. Bureau of educ., Washington, D. C., 1911. Pp. 144.
- Sullivan, E. T., "A survey of the educational methods of three child caring institutions", in *Proc. 13th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Los Angeles, 1927, 365-70.

- Sunlight the health giver*, Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y., no date. Pp. 9.
- Superior, St. Anthony's orphan asylum, Balto., Md., "Necessity of studying the child's social background", in *Proc. 12th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Buffalo, 1926, 415-16.
- **Survey*, The, publ. twice a month by Survey associates, 112 East 19th st., N. Y. C. Subscription \$5.00 a year.
- Suso, Mother M., "Concrete results from application of program for child-caring homes", in *Proc. 11th Nat. conf. Cath. char.*, Washington, D. C., 1925, 291-97.
- Sweet's Engineering catalogue*, publ. annually by Sweet's catalogue service, 119 West 40th st., N. Y. C.
- Terman, L. M., *The hygiene of the school child*, (Houghton Mifflin), Boston, 1914. Pp. 417.
- *Theis, S. v. S., and Goodrich, C., *The child in the foster home*, pt. I, (N. Y. school of social work), N. Y., 1921.
- "Third flying tournament for young plane builders", in *Playground and recreation*, June, 1929, xxiii, 155.
- Thom, D. A., *Habit clinics for children of preschool age*, publ. no. 135, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1924. Pp. 71.
- Thom, D. A., *Habit training for children*, (National committee for mental hygiene), 370 7th ave., N. Y., 1924. Nine leaflets, 1-2 pp. each, bound as pamphlet.
- Thom, D. A., *Child management*, rev. ed., publ. no. 143, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1927. Pp. 43.
- Thom, D. A., *Everyday problems of the everyday child*, (Appleton), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 350.
- Thomas, F., "The place of the institution in a child welfare program", read before 27th N. Y. State conference of charities and correction, Buffalo, Nov. 16-19, 1926. Pp. 7.
- *Thurston, H. W., *The dependent child*, (Columbia university press), N. Y., 1930. Pp. 337.
- Toomey, J. A., "Institutional isolation", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Sept. 1928, xii, 246-48.
- *Trotzkey, E. L., *Institutional care and placing-out; the place of each in the care of dependent children*, (Marks Nathan Jewish orphan home), Chicago, 1930. Pp. 120.
- "Trustees have and are problems", in *Information exchange*, (Child welfare league of America), 1926, ii, Oct. 15, pp. 2-3, Nov. 15, pp. 1, 3-4.
- Ueland, E., *Use of money at Carson college*, (Flourtown, Pa.), no date. Mimeo.
- Ueland, E., "The care of children in institutions", in *Proc. 51st Nat. conf. social work*, Toronto, 1924, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1924, 128-30.
- Ueland, E., "Given good foster homes and good institutions which children should go to institutions?", repr. from *Proc. 33rd Sess. of Minnesota State conference, Second session of the Institute of social work, Sept. 19-25, 1925*.
- Vandevere, J. L., "Musical education through the toy orchestra", repr. from *American childhood*, Oct. 1928, in *Playground and recreation*, June, 1929, xxiii, 170-73.
- **Vocational guidance and junior placement*, publ. no. 149, U. S. Children's bureau, (Employment service publ. A, Junior division of U. S. Employment service), Washington, D. C., 1925. Pp. 440.

- "Wading pools", in *Playground and recreation*, Aug. 1929, xxiii, 306-15.
- Wahl, S. A., "Medical care of institutional children", in *Cath. char. rev.*, Dec. 1924, viii, 364-67.
- Walsh, J. J., and Foote, J. A., *Safeguarding children's nerves*, (Lippincott), Phila., 1924. Pp. 272.
- Warwick, H. L., "Hearing tests in public schools of Fort Worth", repr. from *Volta rev.*, Nov. 1928, xxx, no. 11.
- Wedgwood, H., *Sleep*, Health educ. no. 12, U. S. Bureau of educ., no date. Pp. 22.
- [Weill, B. C.], *Are you training your child to be happy?*, publ. no. 202, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1930. Pp. 57.
- What is your community doing for its hard of hearing?*, (American federation of organizations for the hard of hearing), Washington, D. C., no date. Pp. 12.
- What, why, and how of children's records*, Pennsylvania Dept. of welfare, Harrisburg, Pa. Mimeo, pp. 6.
- **White house conference on child health and protection, Washington, D. C., Nov. 19-22, 1930. (Reports in preparation).
- Whitney, A., *Who's who in healthland*, School health studies no. 3, U. S. Bureau of educ., Washington, D. C., 1923. Pp. 32.
- *Whitney, A., "Weighing school children", repr. from *Child health bulletin*, Mar. 1930, 39-45, Amer. child health assoc., N. Y., 1930.
- Why sleep?*, folder no. 11, U. S. Children's bureau, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 8.
- Wickman, E. K., *Children's behavior and teachers' attitudes*, (Div. of publications, Commonwealth fund), N. Y., 1928. Pp. 247.
- Wilcox, A., "The board member—What is he? What are his responsibilities? How can he be made efficient?", in *Proc. 48th Nat. conf. social work*, Milwaukee, 1921, (Univ. of Chi. press), Chicago, 1921, 406-09.
- Wile, I. S., "The changing I. Q. in children's institutions", in *The Survey*, Oct. 15, 1928, lxi, 89-91.
- Wile, I. S., "Child care or child development?", in *The Survey*, Dec. 15, 1928, lxi, 370-72.
- Williamson, M., *The social worker engaged in the care and protection of children*, Job analysis series vol. 3, Amer. assoc. of social workers. (In preparation).
- Winslow, C. E. A., *The janitor and the school child: ventilation and health*, Metropolitan life insurance co., N. Y., no date. Pp. 12.
- **Women and athletics*, ed. by Women's division, Nat. amateur athletic federation, 370 7th ave., N. Y. C., (Barnes), N. Y., 1930. Pp. 95.
- *Wood, T. D., *Health education: a program for public schools and teacher training institutions*, (Nat. educ. assoc., Washington, D. C; Amer. medical assoc., Chicago), 1924. Pp. 164.
- Wood, T. D., and Hendriksen, E. M., *Ventilation and health*, (Appleton), N. Y., 1927. Pp. 210.
- Woolley, H. T., "Enuresis as a psychological problem", in *Mental hygiene*, Jan. 1926, x, 38-53.
- **You can make it: practical uses for secondhand boxes and odd pieces of lumber* (volume I), U. S. Dept. of commerce, Washington, D. C., 1929. Pp. 52.
- **You can make it for camp and cottage* (volume II), U. S. Dept. of commerce, Washington, D. C., 1930. Pp. 49.

INDEX

- Achievement tests, 206, 412
- Administration and finance, 591-632
 - ownership and incorporation, 591
 - administration, 591-622
 - board of directors, 592-96
 - staff, 596, 622
 - finances, 622-31
 - sources of income, 623-29
 - purchasing and budgeting, 629-30
 - financial accounts and reports, 630-31
 - bibliography, 631-32
- Admission agreement, 516-17
- Admission policies, 418, 483-520. See also Intake, limitation of
- Adolescents,
 - Confessions, 44
 - Confirmation, 49
 - laziness, 66
 - chastity, training in, 94, 100
 - bathing, 313, 317
 - bodily hygiene, 317
 - maturity chart, 317-18, 397
 - cubicles and compartments, 187-88, 317, 651
- Adoption, 534
- Adventure, craving for, and
 - theft, 67, 90
 - unchastity, 94
 - mental health, 175, 176
 - play, 327, 331, 372. See also Recreation
 - home life, 502
 - small-unit system, 574
- Affection, craving for, and
 - chastity, 94
 - mental health, 175, 176, 189-93
 - mental defectives, 202
 - pets, 382
 - home life, 481, 502
 - small-unit systems, 574
- After-care, 537-51
 - the problem, 537-38
 - methods of, 538-51
 - case work, 540-47
 - group work, 547-51
 - religious, 34-35
 - sex cases, 104
 - handling of money, 172-73
- Agenda, for meetings of
 - board of directors, 594
 - staff, 604
- Alcove dormitory, 649, 651
- Alter, K. J., 615-16
- Alumni associations, 191, 458-59, 547-50
- Anger, 195-97
- Apartment system, 564-65
- Apparatus, playground, 351-53
 - home-made, 354
- Application for admission, 508
- Approval and status, craving for. See Recognition, craving for
- Architect, 633
- Athletic badge tests, 400
- Athletics, for girls, 371-72, 395-97
- Audition and audiometer tests, 253-54
- Auditorium, 661
- Auxiliaries, and
 - outside contacts, 191
 - sewing and repairing, 298-99
 - income, 626-29
- Bakery, 639-41
- Balancing mast, 353
- Balderston, L. R., 655
- Banks, 464-69
- Barefoot, going, 404
- Basketball, 348-49, 372
 - for girls, 395-97
 - See also Team games, and Athletics for girls
- Bathing, 271-73, 312-14
- Bathrooms, 654-55
- Bed wetting, 304-10
- Beds and bedding, 303-4, 306, 648, 665
- Benediction of Blessed Sacrament, 50-51
- Bibliographies,
 - religious care, training, and instruction, 64
 - moral training, 113-14
 - discipline, 173
 - mental health, 208
 - medical care, 266-67
 - physical care and health education, 326-27
 - recreation, 407-8
 - education, 477-79
 - social policies, 555-57
 - congregate, group, and cottage systems, 589-90
 - administration and finance, 631-32
 - plant and equipment, 671-72
 - general, 673-84
- Birthdays and birthday parties, 36, 186-87, 476, 627

- Blanks,
 medical record, 264-66
 admission, 510
 social record, 552-53
 See also Records
- Blessed Sacrament, visits to, 51. See also Communion, Mass, Benediction
- Board of directors, 592-96
 membership, 592-93
 appointment and election, 593
 committees, 593
 meetings, 594
 functions, 594-96
 vocational placement, 458
- Board payments, 517-20, 523, 625
- Boarding homes, for
 families, 495-96
 children. See Foster homes
- Boarding schools and child-caring institutions, 3
- Boating, 383
- Boxing, 386
- Broadhurst, J., 668, 670
- Bronner, A. F., 209
- Budget systems, 171-72, 630
- Burt, C., 91-92, 209
- Butter, 278
- Calories, 274-75
- Campfire Girls, and health education, 323. See also Clubs
- Camps and camping, 339, 397, 405-7
- Capital sins, 69, and ch. II passim
- Care of other children, 154-57
- Carter, W. E., 209
- Catechism bee, 60-62
- Catholic Guardian Society, 544-47
- Catholic weeklies, 29
- Celebrations, 402
- Cereals, 278-79, 281-83, 289, 315
- Chaplain, functions of, 28, 43, 63-64, 72, 82, 105, 128, 131, 359, 364
- Character training. See Moral training
- Charity and uncharity, 65, 86, 171, 327, 388-89, 420, 422, 425
- Chastity and unchastity,
 factors in, 94, 101, 103, 119
 treatment of, 94-105
- Children's hour, 20, 302
- Chores, 152-54
 as penalties, 122
 payment for, 164-66
 and play, 333-608
 and school work, 443
- Cinder path, 351
- Classrooms and equipment, 432
- Cleanliness, 271-73, 310-15
- Clothing, 290-99
 principles, 290-91
 amount and changes, 291-93
 marking, 293, 183
- ready-made and home-made, 294-97, 180-82
- made-over, 297
- records and requisition system, 297-98
- repairs, 298-99
- laundering, 299
- care and quality, 163
- individual choice of, 179-82
- to children on discharge, 537
- Club rooms, 347-48
- Clubs, 157, 167, 323-24, 397-99, 474
- Clubs and club homes for graduates, 543, 544, 550
- Coffee, 280-81
- Collections, and play, 382
- College education, 410, 414, 415
- Communion, First, 35, 36, 46-48
- Communion, Holy,
 voluntary reception, 41-42
 frequency of reception, 45-46
 individual versus group reception, 46
 First Communion, 35, 36, 46-48
 importance in moral education, 86, 96, 103, 111. See also Sacraments
- Community chest, 624-25, 628
- Community resources, use of by institution, 230-31, 453, 511-12
- Conferences of social work, attendance at, by
 board members, 595
 staff, 618-20
- Confession,
 voluntary reception, 41-42
 frequency, 42-43
 choice of confessors, 43-44
 hours for confession, 29, 44
 first confessions, 45
 at parish church, 33-34, 44
 importance in moral education, 86, 96, 103, 106, 111. See also Sacraments
- Confessor,
 choice of, 43-44
 regular, value of, 111
- Confidential exchange, use of in pre-admission investigations, 508
- Confirmation, 35, 36, 48-49
- Congregate, group, and cottage systems, 558-590
 definition of terms, 558-59
 prevalent conditions, 559-67
 small-unit and large-unit plans, 567-81
 group and cottage plans, 581-83
 size of units, 854
 age groupings, 584-87
 sex grouping, 587
 preparation of food, 588-89
 general suggestions, 589
 bibliography, 589-90
- Congregate system, definition, 558
 prevalent conditions, 559-61
 value as compared with group and cottage systems, 567-81

- Construction activities, 323, 353-56, 380-82
- Contagious ward, 260-62, 656
- Contests, play, 367-68
- Cooking, 283-84
- Costs,
 per capita, 493-94, 577-78
 of family aid, 496
 of institutional care versus family aid, 498-99
 of institutional care versus preadmission investigation, 513-14
 of congregate versus group and cottage systems, 577-80
 of home versus commercial laundering, 656-57
 of farm, 662
 See also Finances
- Cottage system,
 definition, 558-59
 prevalent conditions, 559, 564-67
 value as compared with congregate system, 567-81
 community exercises, 575-77
 value as compared with group system, 581-83
 costs, 577-80
 See also Congregate, group, and cottage systems
- Courage and fear, 193-95
- Court commitments, 515
- Courtesy. See Manners
- Cubicles, 187-88, 317, 651
- Cultural education, 459-79
 principles, 461-62
 methods and practices, 462-75
 manners, 475-77
 bibliography, 478-79
- Cupboards, 260, 657-58
- Dancing,
 folk, 357-59, 361, 384-85
 social, 383
- Darning machine, 298
- Day nursery, as alternative to placement, 498
- Daydreaming, and
 laziness, 66, 87, 88
 unchastity, 94
 mental health, 176, 197
- Decorations, 185-86, 658-60
- Decgan, Sister, 13-14, 16, 17
- Defectives. See Mental defectives
- Defects, physical, prevalence of among children, 210-11
- Dental care, 217, 246, 248-49
- Dentist, 224-26, 228-29
- Deserting parents, 496
- Devotions, 49-58
 length, 24, 49, 51
 number, 49-50, 14
 texts, 50
- voluntary attendance, 50-51
 kinds, 50-58, 60
 to Blessed Virgin, 96, 103-4
- Dick test, 242-44, 247
- Diet, and
 enuresis, 307
 health of teeth, 314-15
 See also Food
- Dietitian, 284-85, 315
- Dining rooms, 641-46
 seating, 642
 decoration, 642-43
 table linen, 643-44
 table equipment, 644
 serving, 644
 dishwashing, 644-46
- Diphtheria, 242, 246
- Directors. See Board of directors
- Discharge, 521-22, 527-37
 to parents or relatives, 528-31
 to foster homes, 531-36
 to other institutions, 536
 to self-support, 536-37
 pre-discharge investigations, 537
- Discipline, 115-139
 problem, 115-16
 penalties and rewards, 119-29
 general principles, 129-38
 obedience, 138-39
 bibliography, 173
 and play, 331
 and summer camp, 406
 and orchestras and bands, 465
 and intake policies, 494-95, 599
 and congregate, group, and cottage systems, 573
- Dishwashing, 644-46
- Dispensary, 214-15, 222-23, 254-56
- Divorce pending, admission of children when, 496-97
- Domestic science, 441-44, 446
- Dormitories, 187-88, 646-51
 size, 646-47
 arrangement, 647
 ventilation, 303, 647
 sunlight, 647-48
 beds, 648
 lockers and dressing rooms, 648-49
 decoration and furnishings, 649-51
 cubicles, alcoves, and compartments, 187-88, 317, 651
 supervision, 651
- Dramatic activities, 469-72
- Drinking fountains, 654
- Earning money, 163-67, 183
- Education, academic, 409-40
 amount and type, 409-15
 retardation and mental defect, 206-7, 415-25
 summer school, 425-27
 attendance at outside schools, 427-33

- study periods, 433-34
- educational excursions, 434
- reading and library, 435-38
- institutional opportunities, 438-40
- See also Gifted children
- Education, cultural, 402, 459-77
 - principles, 461-62
 - methods and practices, 462-75
 - manners, 475-77
- Education, health, 318-25
- Education, moral. See Moral training
- Education, religious. See Religious care and training
- Education, vocational. See Vocational education
- Education and play, 327-30
- Educational excursions, 434
- Eggs, 279, 281-83, 315, 316
- Elimination, 271, 304
- Emergency placements, 500
- Employees,
 - health, 231, 614
 - vacation and time off, 607-8
 - character, 662-63
 - wages, 166, 608-9
- Endocrine clinic, 252-53
- Enuresis, 271, 304-10
- Equipment,
 - play, 350-56
 - in congregate, group and cottage systems, 558-59
 - See also Plant and equipment
- Etiquette. See Manners
- Examinations, medical,
 - use in moral training, 77, 87, 104
 - preadmission and admission, 212-13, 220, 232-34, 239-47, 509-10
 - See also Re-examinations
- Examinations, mental,
 - use in moral training, 77, 88, 104
 - and mental health, 199-208
 - preadmission and admission, 242, 509-10
 - See also Intelligence tests
- Examinations, religious, on admission, 25, 31
- Exhibits, 377-78
- Family,
 - primacy of, 480-82
 - as educative agency, 152, 567-69
- Family rehabilitation, 35-36, 48, 51, 522-26, 530-31
- Family ties, preservation of, 48, 147-49, 163, 180, 190-91, 487-503, 519, 522-23
- Farm, 661-63
 - costs, 661-62
 - values and hazards, 661-62, 335
 - superintendent and help, 662-63
- Farming, training in, 454
- Favoritism, 193
- Fear, 193-95
- Feast days, 53-54
- Feeble-minded. Seen Mental defect and Mental defectives
- Field days, 401-2
- Finances, 622-31
 - sources of income, 623-29
 - purchasing and budgeting, 294-97, 629-30
 - financial accounts and reports, 630-31
 - and discipline, 117
 - and school education, 430-31
 - and progress, 599
 - See also Costs
- Fire protection, 666-68
 - alarms, 666-67
 - inspection, 667
 - insurance, 667
 - drills, 155, 667-68
- Fireproof construction, 579
- Fish, 279, 281-83
- Flight from reality, 66, 80, 88, 107-8, 176-78, 373, 378
- Floors, 665
- Folk dancing, 357-59, 361, 384-85
- Follow-up, medical, 215, 222-23, 247-54
- Food, 269-70, 273-90
 - food needs, 273-76
 - chief foods, 276-85
 - food habits, 285-86
 - food dislikes, 269-70, 286-90
- Forty Hours' devotion, 50
- Foster-home placement and follow-up, 486, 495, 503, 531-36, 540, 556
- Four-H clubs, 323-24. See also Clubs
- Freedom,
 - devotional, 4-24, 41-42, 50-51, 62
 - value in moral training, 106
 - disciplinary,
 - within institution, 115-16, 118, 139-42
 - permission to go outside institution, 34-35, 118, 139-40, 142-51, 428, 437-38. See also Outside contacts
 - recreational, 142, 155-56, 331, 341, 362, 367-68, 372-73
 - and admission policies, 494-95
 - and large-unit and small-unit systems, 573
- Fresh air, 153, 315-17, 373, 647-48
- Friends, contact with, by children, 190. See also Outside contacts
- Fruits, 279, 281-83
- Games, indoor, quiet, 378-79. See also Play activities
- Garbage disposal, 664-65
- Gardens, individual, 167, 289-90, 323, 474
- Generosity, 171, 190, 191-92
- Gifted children
 - laziness, 88

- moral conduct, 207-8
- education of, 208
- and summer schools, 427
- vocation guidance of, 453
- Girls, athletics for, 371-72, 395-97
- Giving, 171, 190, 191-92
- Goiter, 281
- Grace, means of, in moral training, 69-70, 86, 90, 95-97, 103, 108-13, 196, 207. See also Sacraments, Devotions, and ch. I-II passim
- Grace at meals, 53
- Gratitude, 193
- Group rewards, 127-28, 133-34
- Group system,
 - definition, 558-59
 - prevalent conditions, 559, 561-64
 - value as compared with congregate systems, 567-81
 - community exercises, 575-77
 - costs, 577-80
 - value as compared with cottage system, 581-83
- See also Congregate, group, and cottage systems
- Growth charts, 215, 223, 249-51, 321-22
- Gymnasium, 348-50
- Hair cuts, and individual tastes, 182-83
- Handcrafts, 419-20, 423-25, 442, 472-73. Cf. also Construction activities and Manual training
- Hart, H. H., 578
- Health,
 - mental, 174-208
 - emotional, 176-98
 - intellectual, 198-208
 - and moral conduct, 65, 66, 86, 88-89
 - and play, 327
 - physical, 209-326
 - and moral conduct, 65-66, 70, 86-87, 195-97, 209-10, 269
 - and discipline, 118
 - and home visiting, 147-51
 - and play, 327
 - and summer camps, 405
 - of staff and employees, 231, 364, 426, 614
- Health education and training, 318-25
 - the problem, 318-19
 - health habits, 319-20
 - methods in health education, 320-24
- Health week, 321
- Healy, W., 89, 209, 304, 305
- Hearing, tests of, 253-54
- Heating, 669-70
- Height and weight records, 215, 223, 249-51, 321-22
- Helen, Sister, 14, 15, 16, 18, 26, 33, 42, 57, 59
- High school education, 410, 412-14, 427-31
- Hobbies, 382
- Holy Office, decision of, on training in chastity, 95-96
- Home, rehabilitation of. See Family rehabilitation
- Home ties. See Family ties
- Home-coming day, 550-51
- Homesickness, 233
- Honesty and dishonesty, 66-67, 89-91, 328. See also Possessions and property
- Honor system, 135, 398
- Housekeeper's office, 641
- Housekeepers, and broken homes, 495-96
- Ideals, in moral training, 1, 103, 108-113, 329-30
- Idleness, and
 - discipline, 130
 - moral conduct, 327
- See also Daydreaming and Laziness
- Income, sources of, 623-29
- Incorporation of institutions, 591
- Individualization, in
 - religious training, 14-15, 19-24, 25-27, 31, 37-38, 40-42, 44-47, 53, 62
 - moral training, 65, 68-69, 71-84, 86-108
 - discipline, freedom, and self-reliance, 118, 125, 127, 133, 135-47, 154, 156, 172
 - mental health, 177-89, and passim in ch. IV
 - academic, vocational, and cultural education, 413, 423, 439-40, 449-51, 470-71, 473
 - small-unit systems, 570-73
- See also passim in ch. V-VII, IX
- Indoor and outdoor play, 372-73
- Industry and laziness, 66, 87-89
- Inferiority feeling, and
 - moral conduct, 65-67, 69, 80, 86-87, 90, 195
 - degrading punishments, 119-20
 - mental health, 176-79
 - mentally defective, 203, 420, 422
 - enuresis, 308
 - extramural sports, 394-95
 - clubs, 399
 - outside schools, 429-30
 - orchestras and bands, 465
- Infirmity, 214, 223-24, 256-62
- non-contagious ward, 256-60
- contagious ward, 260-62
- Inhibition in
 - general moral training, 85-86
 - training in chastity, 103
- Initiative, in
 - play, 355-56, 367, 379-80
 - clubs, 399
 - celebrations, 402
 - construction activities, 473
- See also Freedom

- Inoculations, 242-47
- Instruction
 religious, 58-62, 70
 moral, 87, 90, 95-101
- Insurance, 667
- Intake, limitation of, 485-503
 case illustrations, 487-91
 reasons for, 491-95
 methods and procedure in, 495-503
 and discipline, 117-18, 599
 and periodic admissions, 235-36
- Intelligence tests, 199-208
 use in moral training, 77, 88
 caution in giving and interpreting, 204-6, 505-6
 and vocational education and advise-
 ment, 411-12, 445, 451
 and defectives, 417, 419-20
 on admission, 424
 See also Examinations, mental
- Isolation, institutional. See Outside contacts
- Isolation, on admission, 213-14, 221-22, 232-39, 500
- Jumping pit, 351, 353
- Kindergarten, 410
- Kitchen, cottage versus central,
 costs, 580
 and domestic arts training, 581, 588
 relative value of cottage kitchens and
 central kitchen, 588-89
- Kitchen, of institution, 636-41
- Labor-saving devices
 and discipline, 117
 electric hair clipper, 182-83
 sewing and repair room equipment, 298, 657
 kitchen equipment, 637-38
 dishwashing machine, 645
 towel drier, 646
 laundry equipment, 655
- Laundry and laundering, 299, 655-57
- Lavatories, 652-53
- Lax children and religious training, 2, 25-27
- Lay help, and discipline, 117
- Laziness, 66, 87-89, 178, 207-8, 307-8
- Leadership, play, 356-69
 supervision, keeping order versus lead-
 ing, 356
 prevalent conditions, 356-59
 opportunity versus leadership, 359-60
 professional versus staff leadership, 360-66
 principles of leadership, 332, 366-69
- Leagues, intramural, 389-93
- Leete, M. M., 492
- Leisure-time activities. See Recreation
- Lenten sacrifices, 56
- Leonard, E. L., 533
- Library, for
 children, 435-38, 478, 659
 staff, 620-22
- Lighting, 668-69
 natural, 668
 artificial, 668-69
 of dormitories, 651
- Liquids, 280-81, 286
- Literature on children's institutions, 620-22. See also Bibliographies
- Living rooms, 658-60
- Living wage,
 and vocational education, 410-11
 for employees, 166, 608-9
- Load, staff, 604-6
- Location of institution, 335, 634-35
- Lockers, individual, 183-85, 311, 353, 648-49
- Lying, 91-94, 134-35
- Male supervision of boys, 130-31
- Manners, 154, 394-95, 475-77, 479
- Manual training, 441-44, 446-48. Cf. also Construction activities and Handcrafts
- Marching in line, 139-40, 141-42
- Marking of
 clothing, 293
 toilet articles, 310
 napkins, 643
- Mass,
 voluntary attendance, 4-24
 hours, 24, 38
 length of morning services, 38-39
 posture at, 39
 manner of hearing, 39-41
 See also ch. I passim
- Maturity chart, 317-18, 397
- Meals,
 talking during, 140-42, 285-86
 outdoor, 403
- Means, natural and supernatural in
 moral training, 111-12. See also Grace, means of
- Meat, 279, 281-83, 315
- Medical care, 209-67
 problem, 209-12
 concrete programs, 212-24
 staff, 224-31
 admission, 232-47
 receiving department and isolation, 232-39
 examinations, 239-48
 residence, 247-62
 follow-up and re-examinations, 247-54
 dispensary and ambulatory cases, 254-56
 infirmary and bed-patients, 256-62
 records, 262-66
 bibliography, 266-67

- Meetings of
 school staff, 432-33
 board of directors, 594
 general staff, 105, 602-4, 617
- Mental defect, and moral conduct, 67, 88, 202-4
- Mental defectives,
 mental health, 199-207
 school work, 415-25
 extent of problem, 415-16
 defect versus retardation, 416-18
 methods, 418-25
 bibliography, 477-78
 admission of, 418, 504-7
 vocational guidance, 454-57
 need of Catholic institutions for, 507, 536
- Mental disease, 198-99
- Mental health, 174-208
 the problem, 174-76
 emotional health, 176-98
 craving for recognition, 176-89
 craving for affection, 189-93
 courage and fear, 193-95
 control of temper, 195-96
 intellectual health, 198-208
 mental disease, 198-99
 subnormal and supernormal mental-ity, 199-208
- Menus, 269, 284-85
- Merit system, 126-28, 164-66
- Milk, 276-78, 281-83, 288, 315
- Missal, use of by children, 23, 39-40
- Missionary societies, 57-58
- Modesty, in dressing and bathing, 313-14
- Money,
 rewards, 124-25
 earning, 32, 90, 163-67, 170, 183
 saving, 167-68
 spending, 168-72
 giving, 171
 budgeting, 171-72
- Moral training,
 relation of religious care and training to, 1-2
 factors in moral conduct, 65-105, 327-30, 371, 581-82
 classification, 67-68
 capital sins and occasions of sin, 69
 diagnosis, 70-84
 treatment, 84-105
 ideals, motives, means, 108-113
 principles of, 65, 85, 101, 106-7, 108-9, 111-13
 bibliography, 113-14
 See also Anger, Discipline, Generosity, Obedience
- Mothers' pensions, 484-86, 498-99
- Motion picture cabinet, 661
- Motion pictures, 57, 374-77
- Motives, in moral training,
 supernatural, 23-24, 42, 70, 86, 87, 90, 93-97, 101, 108-13, 126, 130, 132, 138-39, 194, 195, 207, and ch. I passim
- natural, 24, 42, 112-13
- Music,
 training in, 462-69
 appreciation, 463
 singing, 463-64
 instrumental, 464-69
- Nails, and cleanliness, 315
- Name days, 187
- Napkins, 643
- Nash, J. B., 334, 338
- Nature study, 335, 341, 427, 473-75
- Newspapers, 437
- Novenas, 50, 52
- Novitiates and training of staff, 617
- Nurse, 224-25, 229-30
- Obedience, 123, 126, 130, 132, 138-39, 206, 328. See also Rewards and penalties
- Occasions of sin, 67, 69, 174-75, 207, and ch. II passim
- O'Grady, J., 481, 492, 501, 532, 624
- Opportunity classes for retardants and mental defectives, 418-20, 425
- Orchestras, 465-69
- Organization,
 under congregate, group, and cottage systems, 558-59
 of staff, 596-606
 See also ch. XI passim
- Orphans, 492, 495-96
- Orthodonture, 248-49
- Outdoor and indoor play, 372-73
- Outdoor meals, 403
- Outside contacts of children,
 permissions to go outside, 34-35, 118, 139-40, 142-47, 428, 437-38
 visits to relatives and friends, 147-51
 banks and stores, 167-69
 relation to mental health, 179
 barber shops, 183
 radio, 374
 motion pictures, theatres, exhibits, 375, 377-78
 athletics, 387-88, 394-95
 clubs and scouting, 397-99
 play days, 401
 camping, 406
 outside schooling, 410, 413, 423, 427-31, 443, 473
 educational excursions, 434, 473-74
 public library, 437-38
 See also Freedom
- Ownership of institutions, 591
- Padgett, A. E., 501-2
- Pageants, in health education, 322
- Pantries, 638

- Parents. See Family, Family rehabilitation, Family ties
- Parish life,
 duplication of in institution, 28-33
 participation in by
 institutional children, 33-35, 48-49
 graduates, 541
- Parties,
 on feast days, 54
 birthday, 186-87
 as practice in manners, 477
- Passions, 85
- Pastor of parish, and
 domestic antagonisms, 496
 after-care, 540-41
 See also Parish life
- Payment for board, 517-20, 523, 625
- Penalties and rewards,
 in discipline, 119-20, 130, 138
 under self-government, 160-61
 penalties for damage to property, 162-63
 in enuresis cases, 307, 309
- Periodical review of cases, 526-27
- Periodicals for staff, 621-22
- Permission to leave institution unaccompanied, 142-47. See also Freedom and Outside contacts
- Personality charts, 83-84
- Personality of staff, and
 religious training, 37-38, 62-63
 discipline, 130
 congregative, group, and cottage systems, 570, 574
 religious, moral, and intellectual qualifications, 611-13
- Pet fault, 46, 106
- Pets, 380-82, 474
- Photos, 188-89
- Physical care and training, 268-326
 physical care, 268-318
 food, 273-90
 clothing, 290-99
 sleep, 299-304
 elimination, 304-10
 cleanliness, 310-15
 fresh air, active exercise, and sunlight, 315-17
 adolescence, 317-18
 health training, 318-25
 habit, 319-20
 methods, 320-24
 teacher and group mother, 324-25
 bibliography, 325-26
- Physician, supervising, 224-28
- Picnics, 341, 402-3, 474
- Pius XI, Pope, Encyclical on Christian education of youth, 95
- Plant and equipment, 117, 633-72
 introduction, 633-34
 location, 634-35
 buildings and furnishings, 635-63
 general service, 663-71
 bibliography, 671-72
- Play. See Recreation
- Play, and
 moral training, 67, 90, 103, 105, 328-30
 discipline, 116-17, 118, 122, 123, 142
 chores, 152-53
 care of other children, 155-56
- Play activities, choice of, 369-407
 general principles, 370-72
 indoor and outdoor play, 372-73
 passive recreation, 373-78
 quiet play, 378-82
 active non-competitive play, 382-83
 social and folk-dancing, 383-85
 active competitive play, 385-97, 400-2
 team games, 386-97
 clubs, 397-99
 group contests, 400-2
 celebrations, 402
 summer activities, 402-7
- Play days, 401
- Play leadership. See Recreational directors
- Play on Sunday, Catholic view of, 16, 56-57, 330-31, 364, 608
- Play pavilions, 341-42
- Playgrounds, 334-41
 size, 334-35
 division according to age and sex, 335-36
 surface, 336-38
 drainage, 338
 shade, 339-40, 353
 beauty, 340
 layout, 340
 woods and grounds, 340-41
- Playrooms, 346-48
- Plays and pageants, in health training, 322
- Plumbing, 663
- Pool and billiards, 379
- Population, parental status of, 492
- Population trends in institutions, 484-86
- Possessions and property, 89, 161-73, 183-85. See also Honesty and dishonesty
- Posture clinics, 251-52
- Poverty, as ground for admission, 486, 497-99
- Prayer,
 morning and night, 29-31
 for relatives, 190
 See also Grace, means of, and ch. I-II passim
- Preadmission examination, mental and physical, value of, 509-10
- Preadmission investigation, effect of decrease of population, 484, 485, 486
 need and purposes, 507-8
 methods, 508-10
 personnel, 510-14
- Prevocational education, 427, 441-44, 448

- Principles, in
 religious care and training, 23-24, 26-27, 62
 truthfulness, 93
 rewards, 125-26
 discipline, 129-38
 self-government plans, 160-61
 control of temper, 194-95
 training of mentally defective, 206-7
 transfer of play habits, 329-30
 play leadership, 366, 69
 choice of play activities, 370-72
 folk dancing, 385
 girls' athletics, 395-97
 academic education, 410
 vocational education, 458-59
 cultural education, 461-62
 social policies, 482-83
 foster-home placement, 533-34
 administration, 597-602
- Problem children, admission of, 504-5
- Profanity,
 factors in, 65-66
 treatment of, 87
- Property, institutional, care of by children, 162-63
- Proportion of staff to population, 580, 604-6
- Psychiatric clinics, 197-98
- Psychiatric services, recourse to, in
 moral training, 73-76, 80-82, 92, 104
 mental health problems, 177, 197-98, 204
 food dislikes, 290
 enuresis cases, 310
 See also Examinations, mental
- Punishment,
 in discipline, 119-23, 130, 138
 administration of, 128-29
 corporal, 120-21
 under self-government, 160-61
 for damage to property, 162-63
 in enuresis cases, 307, 309
- Puppet shows, 473
- Purchasing, joint and large scale, 629-30
- Qualifications of
 staff,
 religious and moral, 611-12
 intellectual, 612-13
 physical, 613-14
 superintendent of farm, 662-63
- Quarantine, on admission, 213-14, 221-22, 232-39, 500
- Quarters of staff, 606-7
- Radios, 374
- Reading, 302-3, 378, 427, 435-38, 475, 478
- Receiving department, 213-14, 221-22, 232-39, 246-47
- Reception rooms, 660
- Recognition, craving for, and
 moral conduct, 65-67, 69, 86-87, 89, 91, 196
 mental health, 175-89
 mental defectives, 202
 food dislikes, 287
 pets, 382
 small-unit system, 574
- Records,
 social and other, 551-55
 value, 551-52
 types, 552-54
 how kept, 554-55
 social,
 value for religious and moral training, 27, 76-79
 admission and preadmission, 509-12
 mental, value in
 moral training, 77
 vocational advisement, 451
 medical and physical, 77, 87, 215-16, 224, 246, 262-66, 451
 corporal punishment, 121
 permissions to go out, 144-45
 clothing, 297-98
 financial, 630-31
- Recreation, 327-408
 the problem, 327-332
 time, space, and equipment, 332-56
 time, 332-33
 space, 333-50
 equipment and supplies, 350-56
 leadership, 356-69
 prevalent conditions, 356-59
 problems, 350-69
 choice of play activities, 369-407
 general principles, 370-72
 chief play types, 372-407
 bibliography, 407-8
 for staff, 607-8
 See also Play
- Recreational directors,
 transfer of play habits, 329-30
 general conditions and problems, 357-69
 for girls, 396
- Reeder, R. R., 121
- Re-examinations,
 medical and physical, 215, 222-23, 247-48
 dental, 248
- References. See Bibliographies
- Refrigeration, 639
- Rehabilitation of home. See Family rehabilitation
- Religious care and training, 1-64
 introduction, 1-3
 major problems,
 voluntary versus obligatory system, 4-24
 uninstructed and lax, 24-27
 institution, parish, and home, 28-36
 religious habits and practices, 36-58

- religious instruction, 58-62
- general principles, 62-64
- bibliography, 64
- mentally defective, 506-7
- small-unit system, 851-82
- Repair room, 657
- Repairs, of clothing, 298-99
- Requisitions system, for clothing, 297-98
- Residence,
 - average length, 493-94
 - long-time versus short-time, 520-22
- Retardation, academic, 415-25, 427
- Retreats, 55-56
- Reverence and profanity,
 - factors in, 65-66
 - treatment of, 87
- Rewards and penalties,
 - in discipline, 119-30
 - money rewards, 164-66
 - in enuresis cases, 307, 309
- Rogers, J. F., 324
- Root cellar, 638-39
- Rosary, 51-52
- Rose de Lima, Sister, 16, 18
- Routine, and
 - religious training, 2
 - play, 362
 - outside schooling, 430
- Rules of the game, in moral training, 106-7
- Sacraments,
 - voluntary reception, 4, 41-42, 45
 - importance in moral training, 69-70, 86, 90, 95-97, 103, 108-13
 - See also Communion, Confession, Confirmation, and ch. I-II passim
- Safety first, 320
- Sand box, 350-51, 353, 378, 472
- Sanitation, 663-66
 - plumbing, 663
 - sewage, 663-64
 - water supply, 664
 - garbage disposal, 664-65
 - floors and walls, 665
 - bedding, 665
 - screens, 665-66
- Saving money, 167-68, 537
- Scapulars, 52
- Scarlet fever, 247, 242-44
- Schick test, 242, 246
- School. See Education, academic, cultural, vocational
- School, attendance at, outside institution, 410, 413, 423, 427-31, 443, 473
- School building, separate, 431-32
- School work, and
 - chores, 153
 - play, 331
- Scouts and scouting, 323, 397-99. See also Clubs
- Screens, 665-66
- Secondary education. See High school education
- Security, craving for, 574
- Seesaws, 352, 382
- Self-government, 157-61, 163, 354, 398-99
- Self-reliance, 115-16, 145, 151-73
 - chores, 152-54
 - care of other children, 154-57
 - participation in government, 157-61, 163, 354, 398-99
 - possessions and property, 161-73
 - team games, 394
 - See also Outside contacts, Inferiority feelings, Flight from reality
- Self-support,
 - discharge to, 536-37
 - and after-care, 541-44
- Sermons, 28, 56
- Serving of food, 644
- Sewage, 663-64
- Sewing room, 657
- Showers, 117, 271-72, 312-14
- Simplicita, Sister, 116
- Singing,
 - at Mass, 40-41
 - at Benediction, 51
 - at Stations, 52
 - devotional, 53
 - and cultural education, 463-64
- Skating, ice, 345-46, 383
- Skating, roller, 382
- Sleep, 65, 101-2, 270-71, 399-304
 - need, 299
 - amount, 299-300
 - hours of rising and retiring, 300-1
 - rest periods, 301-2
 - sleep habits, 102, 302-3
 - beds and bedding, 102, 303-4
- Slides, 352, 382
- Sloth. See Laziness
- Smallpox, 242, 246
- Social policies, 480-557
 - the problem, 480-83
 - admission, 483-520
 - present trends, 483-87
 - keeping child in its home, 487-503
 - placing the child, 503-7
 - preadmission investigation, 507-14
 - responsibility for admissions, 514-15
 - terms of acceptance, 515-17
 - payments, 517-20
 - residence, 520-27
 - long-time versus short-time residence, 520-22
 - rehabilitating home, 522-26
 - periodical review of cases, 526-27
 - discharge and after-care, 527-51
 - discharge, 527-37
 - after-care, 537-51
 - social records, 551-55

- bibliography, 555-57
- Social worker, and
 - limitation of intake, 484-85, 492-93
 - preadmission investigations, 510-14
 - family rehabilitation, 523-25
 - periodical review of cases, 526-27
 - after-care, 538-39, 544-47
- Societies,
 - altar, 32-33
 - religious, 32-35, 57-58
 - recreational, 157. See also Clubs
- Sodalities, 35, 57
- Sources. See Bibliographies
- Specialists, services of, in medical care, 230
- Spencer, M., 210, 320, 322
- Spending money, 168-71
- Spontaneous play activities, to be built upon, 367-69
- Staff, health of, 231, 364, 426, 614
- Staff, organization and administration, structure and functions,
 - structure, 596
 - religious and moral training, 62-64, 72, 77-83, 105, 107-8
 - mental health, 197
 - medical, dental and nursing care, 212, 217, 220, 224-31
 - health training, 324-25
 - school work, 430-31
 - vocational guidance, 445, 451-52
 - play leadership, 360-66
 - after-care, 541-44
 - See also Chaplain, Superintendent, Physician, Dentist, Nurse, Specialists, Psychiatric services, Recreational directors, Social worker, etc.
- administrative policies, 597-602
- meetings,
 - general staff, 105, 602-4, 617
 - school staff, 532-33
- staff load, 604-6
- Staff, personnel of,
 - duties, 609-11. See also Staff, organization and administration
 - qualifications, 130, 132, 137, 189, 611-15
 - training
 - general, 615-22
 - moral pedagogy, 79, 82, 100-1
 - play leadership, 364-66
 - class teaching, 433
 - handcrafts, 472-73
- Staff quarters, 606-7
- Stations of the Cross, 51-52
- Storage space, for
 - linens, etc., 260
 - food supplies, 638-39
 - clothing, etc., 657-58
- Stores, institutional, 169-71
- Story telling, 374. See also Children's hour
- Strayer, G. C., 415-16
- Study periods, 413, 433-34
- Style show, 182
- Sublimation, in moral training, 85-86
- Substitution, in moral training, 85-86, 90, 103, 177, 206
- Summer camps and houses, 339, 397, 405-7
- Summer play activities, 402-7
- Summer school, 425-27
- Sunday observance, 16, 56-57, 330-31, 364, 608
- Sunlight,
 - importance, 315-17
 - and play, 316, 333, 339, 373
 - in dormitories, 647-48
 - in toilets and washrooms, 652
- Superintendent,
 - relation to
 - medical staff, 231
 - social policies, 514-15
 - board of directors, 594-96
 - functions and training of, 609-11, 613
 - administrative policies, 597-602
- Superior. See Superintendent
- Supervised study, 413, 433-34
- Supplies, play, 353-56
- Support of Church, 31-33
- Surface, playground, 336-38, 351, 404
- Surrenders, voluntary and court, 515-17
- Sweets, 280-82, 288
- Swimming and swimming pools, 342-44, 383
- Swings, 352, 382
- Table linen and equipment, 163, 643-44
- Tale-bearing, 93, 134, 158, 161
- Talking during meals, 140-42, 285-86
- Team games, 370-72, 386-97
 - prevalent conditions, 387-88
 - values and methods, 388-97
 - intramural, 389-93
 - extramural, 394-95
 - for girls, 395-97
- Teamwork, in
 - religious training, 23-63
 - moral training, 82-83, 105
 - discipline, 129
 - social policies, 514-15, 518, 535
 - staff administration, 597-602
- Teeth, and cleanliness, 314-15
- Temper, control of, 195-97
- Temperature, indoor, 303, 669-70
- Tennis, 386
- Tests and inoculations, 242-47
- Tests, intelligence. See Intelligence tests, and Examinations, mental
- Texts of novenas, 52
- Theaters, 377
- Theft,
 - factors in, 66-67
 - treatment of, 89-91

- Thom, D. A., 89
 Thrift, 167-68
 Tobogganing and toboggan-slides, 345-46, 383
 Toilet articles, 310-11, 652-53
 Toilets, 353, 652-54
 Toomey, J. A., 237
 Tournaments, 367-68, 389-93, 397, 400-1
 Toxin-antitoxin and toxoid, 242, 246
 Toy orchestra, 469
 Training of staff,
 need of, 615-16
 professional training, 426, 616-17
 emergency training, through
 staff meetings, 617
 institutes and lecture courses, 617-18
 conferences and social work meetings and conventions, 618-20
 visits to other institutions, 620
 literature, 620-22
 in moral pedagogy, 79, 82, 100-1
 in play leadership, 364-66
 in class teaching, 433
 in handicrafts, 472-73
 Transfer of play habits, 328-30, 361
 Trotzkey, E. L., 533
 Truthfulness and lying, factors in and treatment of, 91-94
 Tuberculous infection, von Pirquet and Mantoux tests, 244-46
 Tubs, 654-55. See also Showers
 Turnover, and
 religious training, 3, 11, 60, 61
 physical health, 211
 vocational education, 441
 See also Residence
 Typhoid fever, 242, 247
- Uncharity in speech,
 factors in, 65
 treatment of, 86
 Unchastity,
 factors in, 94, 101, 103, 119
 treatment of, 94-105
 Undernourishment, 223, 249-51, 301
 Understanding, craving for, 192-93
 Uniforms, 179-80, 291-92, 295
 Uninstructed children, and religious training, 2-3, 24-25
 Units, in congregate, group, and cottage institutions,
 size of, 558, 569-70, 584
 value of small, 569-70
 composition of, according to
 age, 584-87
 sex, 587
- Vacations, 607-8
 Vaccination, against
 smallpox, 242, 246
 typhoid, 242, 247
 whooping cough, 242-43, 247
 Vaginal smear, 242, 244, 246
 Vegetable cellar, 638-39
 Vegetables, 279, 281-84, 289-90, 315
 Venereal diseases, 242, 244, 246
 Ventilation, 303, 316-17, 647, 652, 670-71
 Victrolas and player pianos, 374
 Virtues, natural and supernatural, 112
 Visit to Blessed Sacrament, 51
 Visiting by
 parents and relatives, 190, 522-23
 children, 147-51, 190, 522-23
 graduates, 539, 550-51
 Visits by staff to other institutions, 620, 633-34, 672
 Vitamins, 247, 275, 276, 278, 279, 283, 314, 315, 316
 Vocational education,
 need, 410, 414-15, 440-41
 prevocational, 441-44
 vocational proper, 444-59
 advisement, 449-52
 training, 452-57
 placement, 457-59
 bibliography, 478
 chores, 152-53
 earning money outside, 166-67
 clothes making, 296-97
 use of outside schools, 428
 Voluntary religious practices,
 attendance at religious services,
 the problem, 4
 present trends, 4-8
 pros and cons, 9-16
 practical procedure,
 supervision of absentees, 16-19
 encouragement of voluntary attendance, 19-24
 reception of Sacraments, 4, 41-42, 45
 devotions, 50-51, 62
- Wading pools, 345
 Wages, of employees, 166, 608-9
 Wallace, M., 533
 Walls, 665
 Washing, 271-73, 311-12
 Washrooms, 353, 652-53
 Wassermann test, 242, 244, 246
 Water supply, 664
 Whooping cough, 242-43, 247
 Wickman, E. K., 107-8
 Winslow, C. E. A., 670
 Wood, T. D., 210, 299
 Workmen's compensation, 498

[illegible]

MAR 7 1949

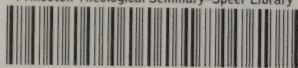
JAN 24 50

FEB 2 1993



HV741 .C77
Children's institutions

Princeton Theological Seminary-Speer Library



1 1012 00025 6109